

N° 27 — 1856.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, AUGUST 30, 1856.

## REVIEWS.

*The Works of William Shakspeare, the Text formed from a New Collation of the Early Editions; to which are added the Original Novels and Tales on which the Plays are Founded; Copious Archaeological Annotations on each Play; an Essay on the Formation of the Text; and a Life of the Poet.* By J. O. Halliwell, Esq. Vols. I.—V.

IN a former notice of Mr. Halliwell's edition of Shakspeare (p. 413), we limited our observations to the Life, and to the general features in which the editor had enlarged upon the plans of his predecessors. We now propose to examine the manner in which he has executed his undertaking in detail, with a view to exhibit the kind of framework in which he has set the plays. For this purpose we select the fifth volume, which contains the *Midsummer Night's Dream* and *The Merchant of Venice*, confining our description to the latter. We may observe that all the plays are submitted systematically to the same process of exhaustion, so that in showing the mode of procedure adopted in one instance we develop in effect the entire structure of the work. There is an introduction to each drama, more or less elaborate, according to the importance or variety of the special questions involved in its consideration. The principal points which may be regarded as being common to them all are the sources from whence the story was drawn, the date of the authorship, and such circumstances as can be collected respecting the production and reception of the play and its subsequent history. In all cases the original tales or ballads upon which the plot is conjectured to have been founded are reprinted *extenso*, and incidental coincidences pointed out in other directions. In the notes further light is thrown upon all these points, in addition to a wide range of illustrative and critical matter. The reader, therefore, who has sufficient leisure to indulge in the luxury of a complete survey of a favourite play, will here find it surrounded by all the requisite materials for such an investigation, collected with judgment and industry, and arranged in the most lucid order.

The Introduction to *The Merchant of Venice* is a treatise in itself. It opens with an inquiry into two popular mediæval stories upon which the plot may be presumed to have been primarily, although not immediately, founded. One of these relates to the bond of the pound of flesh, which exists in various forms; and the other to the caskets. The former is probably of Oriental extraction, as it may be traced, under different shapes, to many languages of the East. It occurs also in a Latin MS. in the British Museum, written about the year 1320, and in the 'Gesta Romanorum,' with a love story interwoven, similar to that of *Portia* in the play. Passing over other places and forms in which it appears at various dates, the closest to the time of Shakspeare, and to the precise course of the action as disclosed in the play, is a novel by Fiorentino, printed at Milan in 1558. The coincidences between this novel and the play are so striking as to leave no reasonable doubt that it furnished Shakspeare with his principal incidents. Here we have a lady who attaches a certain condition to her hand, upon the failure of which her lover must forfeit all his goods. Twice the lover fails, being foiled

in his purpose by narcotics administered in his wine, and on each occasion he forfeits the rich argosy he had brought with him. Resolved to try his fortune again, he now raises money on the security of his godfather, who, to assist him in his object, borrows ten thousand ducats of a Jew, under the penalty of a pound of flesh if the loan be not repaid by a certain day. The third time the lover ventures, and, being secretly warned not to taste the fatal wine, succeeds. Absorbed in his new happiness, he forgets the bond till the day approaches for its payment. The lady, upon being made acquainted with the circumstances, sends him off at once to Venice provided with an ample store of wealth, and follows him privately disguised as a lawyer. Then follow the well-known incidents exactly as they occur in the play—the failure of the suit of the Jew, through the ingenuity of the pretended lawyer—the subsequent fee of the ring—the affected jealousy, and high comedy distress of the husband—and the final explanations. Mr. Halliwell prints the whole of this very curious Italian novel, the Latin story, and the tale from the 'Gesta Romanorum,' relating, at more or less length, other versions of that part of the narrative which relates to the bond. It will be seen that in the Italian novel the main circumstances of the play are mapped out, the only material point on which a difference arises being that of the manner in which *Portia* chooses her husband; a device which Shakspeare derived from other sources. In rejecting the conditions insisted upon by the heroine of the novel, and substituting for them the incident of the caskets, the poet shows his usual judgment and discretion, for the conditions are not only unsuceptible of effective dramatic treatment, but of a nature to render the lady odious in the eyes of the audience.

The earliest form of the story of the caskets is traced to the Greek romance of 'Barlaam and Josaphat,' written about 800. Descending through the Latin, it was adopted by Gower, in the 'Confessio Amantis,' and it appears to have been of frequent occurrence in a variety of shapes amongst the Latin romances of the middle ages. Similar stories, in which the principal feature of choice and chance is reproduced in numerous ingenious expedients, are found in other places. But Mr. Halliwell is of opinion that Shakspeare was directly indebted for the incident of the caskets to the 'Gesta Romanorum,' of which there was a popular translation in his time, "or to some novel or play composed by a writer who had borrowed his materials from that singular collection of stories."

There remains yet to be accounted for, however, the episode of *Lorenzo and Jessica*, which Mr. Halliwell thinks may possibly have been suggested by the fourteenth tale in the 'Novellino' of Massuccio di Salerno, of which Dunlop furnishes a brief account in his 'History of Fiction.' The coincidences are, no doubt, close enough to warrant such a supposition, if coincidences were in themselves sufficient ground for conjecture; but as it is highly improbable that Shakspeare was acquainted with the 'Novellino,' we must conclude that he took the suggestion from some narrative or play founded upon the novel, or from some other source. There is nothing in the stratagems of *Jessica* and her lover which might not have occurred in common to many writers, and which might not have existed in many forms. To outwit a miser and run away with his daughter is so

obvious an exploit in the drama of real life that it might have occurred, or been easily conceived, in any age, or in any state of society. It is very different from the singular stories of the Bond and the Caskets, which are clearly either original inventions or exceptional facts.

After reviewing these three important divisions of the play, and presenting us with the sources, in full, from which they may be conjectured to have been taken, Mr. Halliwell opens another speculation which he thinks suggests "a very easy and probable solution of the question." Instead of supposing that Shakspeare drew upon three unconnected works, he discovers a more likely original in a lost play, briefly alluded to by Gosson, under the title of *The Jew*. The fact that in the entry in the registers of the Stationers' Company in 1598, *The Merchant of Venice* was also entitled *The Jew of Venice*, is cited by Mr. Halliwell as a strong corroboration, and the argument is further supported by Gosson's description of the early play, which, he says, was a piece "representing the greediness of worldly choosers, and bloody minds of usurers:"—

"The coincidence of this description," observes Mr. Halliwell, "with the subject of the *Merchant of Venice* is so remarkable, that when we add to it the identity of title, little doubt can fairly remain that the play mentioned by Gosson, in 1579, contained similar incidents to those in Shakspeare's play, and that it was, in all probability, the rude original of the *Merchant of Venice*."

This conclusion is somewhat too sweeping. That Shakspeare was more likely to take his plot ready-made from a single source, than to build it up out of three different plots, is probable enough. The story with him was the least part of the matter, and the materials which entailed the smallest amount of trouble in the way of construction were those which he was most likely to select for the rudiments of a play. But Gosson's description is by no means so minute as to establish a satisfactory coincidence. Worldly greediness and the bloody, that is to say, cruel dispositions of usurers are mere general characteristics, which might be found in numerous plays totally dissimilar from *The Merchant of Venice* in the involution and sequence of incidents. They might, indeed, co-exist with a plot as widely different from that of Shakspeare's Jew as Shakspeare's Jew is from the Jew of Cumberland. Before we can admit that the critic is justified in assuming that the play so dimly referred to by Gosson is the "rude original" of *The Merchant of Venice*, we must know something more about it, especially whether it contained those remarkable incidents upon which the special interest of the action turns. As to the identity of title, it can hardly be insisted upon as possessing any intrinsic weight. *The Merchant of Venice* is a Jew, and the two titles are plainly convertible terms. It was perfectly indifferent whether the play was entered in the register as *The Merchant of Venice* or *The Jew of Venice*, or as both. Nor should it be forgotten, if the inquiry be worth pursuing, that in the original editions of the play, printed only two years afterwards, it was called simply *The Merchant of Venice*.

The supposition that Shakspeare was indebted to the ballad of 'Gernutus,' enters, of course, into the cluster of probabilities; but it may be dismissed to the limbo of discarded conjectures. "If the ballad," says Mr. Halliwell, "was really anterior to the play, it

might possibly have suggested a few trifling expressions;" but if it was really anterior, it might possibly have suggested a great deal more, for we have no right to set a limit to possibilities founded on such an assumption. The greater likelihood is that the ballad was founded on the play. There are many similar examples.

The hypothesis that Gosson's Jew was the groundwork of Shakspeare's merchant involves us in other difficulties. Where did Shakspeare get those accurate local allusions, which are certainly not to be traced to the novel of Fiorentino? Did he get them from the play mentioned by Gosson? Upon this question hear Mr. Halliwell:—

"Unless the somewhat extravagant theory, that the Venetian peculiarities of the present comedy are wholly taken from the elder drama, be adopted, there is sufficient evidence to be observed in it of Shakspeare's personal acquaintance with Venice and Italy."

Being wholly ignorant of what the "elder drama" contained, we are not in a condition to pronounce any theory extravagant as to what might or might not have been taken from it; but we are differently circumstanced with reference to the internal evidence of *The Merchant of Venice*, from which Mr. Brown, Mr. Halliwell, and others, have drawn the inference that Shakspeare must at some period have visited Italy. It is thus summed up by Mr. Halliwell:—

"Not only are the localities and the circumstances of the actions of the characters, excepting the extravagant fiction on which the plot turns, true to contemporary facts, but some of the names, and a few minute allusions, appear to support the opinion that they were solely suggested by the writer's own experience as a traveller. Where," asks Mr. Brown, "did Shakspeare learn of an old villager's coming into the city with a 'dish of doves' as a present to his son's master? A present thus given might have been noticed in Italy, where this kind of offering was not unusual; but it is a graphic vestige of national manners not at all likely to have been transferred from a contemporary volume."

And why not? Are graphic vestiges of national manners never "transferred" from contemporary volumes? We have always considered Mr. Brown an extremely unsafe Shakspearean critic, and we do not think that in this instance his sagacity shows to much greater advantage than in his commentaries on the sonnets, or his speculations on the mysterious initials of Mr. W. H. It would be very pleasant to be able to believe that Shakspeare really visited Venice, and described it from personal observation; but the fact that he speaks of the merchants meeting on the Rialto; that he alludes to rich argosies, gondolas, and torches; and that *Gobbo*, *Antonio*, and *Lorenzo* are names known in Venice, do not supply what appears to us "sufficient evidence" to warrant an inference unsustained by any other kind of evidence. From whatever source he took his story it may be presumed he took his names; and, even if he did not, the mere adoption of Italian names in a play, the scene of which is laid in Italy, cannot be considered a very remarkable circumstance. It should be remembered, also, that the local allusions, after all, are scanty and slight; that there are no sustained descriptions of the city; and that there is not a single passage in the play which displays an intimate personal acquaintance with any particular building or locality. Evidence of this nature should be tested negatively as well as affirmatively; and we think it may be reasonably asserted that if Shakspeare had

ever been in Venice, he would have "transferred" to his play something more of the architecture, costumes, and interior life, and enriched his dialogue with a deeper colouring of the scene. That he should have exhibited some local knowledge without having crossed the Rialto in person is not at all surprising. There are much more extraordinary examples of minute and exact portraiture of places by writers who derived the whole of their information from books. Sir Walter Scott's description of Liege, in 'Quentin Durward,' may be particularly mentioned as being, perhaps, the most familiar to a large class of readers.

It is curious enough, with reference to this part of the inquiry, that, while most of the names in the play are Venetian, or, at all events, Italian, the name of the principal character is English. Mr. Halliwell assigns an ingenious reason for its adoption:—

"The name of Shylock was an ancient English surname, one Richard Shylok, of Hoo, county Sussex, being mentioned in a document dated in 1435; but the probability is in favour of the appellation of the character in the play having been originally taken from the Jewish name of Scialac, which was borne by a Maronite of Mount Libanus, contemporary with Shakspeare, and was in fact one belonging to many individuals of the same creed. The transition from Scialac to Shylock was one easily suggested, and there are reasons for believing that the latter name was current as one belonging to a Jew some time previously to the composition of *The Merchant of Venice*. At the conclusion of a very rare tract, entitled 'A Jewe's Prophecy; or, Newes from Rome of Two Mightie Armies as well Footemen as Horsmen, 1607,' is a piece entitled 'Caleb Shilock, his Prophecie for the yeere 1607.'"

The date of this tract would exclude it from consideration as having suggested a name in a play written, probably, eleven or twelve years before (for there is some reason to believe that the *Merchant of Venice* was written previously to 1596); but Mr. Halliwell says that the edition of 1607 was only a reprint of an older production, the prophecy being adapted to the current year.

Shakspeare's Jew was immediately preceded by Marlowe's Jew of Malta; but there is no structural resemblance between the two pieces; and the few trivial allusions which are coincident to both may be fairly regarded as the stock property of Hebrew portraiture. Mr. Halliwell says:—

"That Shakspeare was acquainted with Marlowe's play, seems evident from the circumstance of his adopting an erroneous accent used by the latter in writing the name of *Barabas*, which is always to be sounded *Barrabas* throughout his play; but no coincidences of importance between the two productions are to be traced. Both *Shylock* and *Barabas* speak of an argosy, of swine-eating Christians, of their desire for revenge, and of their sufferance under the opprobrious epithet of 'dog'; but these, and other kindred expressions, are insufficient to establish the conjecture that Shakspeare had borrowed from his predecessor."

Another example of an erroneous accent employed by Shakspeare occurs in the *Ste-phano* of this play; "but," says Mr. Halliwell, "after Shakspeare had taken a part in the representation of *Every Man in his Humour*, produced in 1598, where the same name occurs in its correct accent, he altered the cadence when he had occasion to write it in a subsequent composition." This slight fact is highly characteristic of the vigilance with which Shakspeare gathered knowledge from all quarters, as Aubrey tells us he "gathered humours" from all manner of men.

Mr. Halliwell examines, at considerable

length, the early editions of the *Merchant of Venice*, and shows, we think conclusively, from circumstantial data, that the play was acted as early as 1596, two years before it was entered in the registers of the Stationers' Company. Amongst the proofs he brings forward is Munday's translation of 'Sylvain's Orator,' containing a version of the story of the Bond, in which several expressions, identical with those employed by Shakspeare, occur in the trial scene. The translation was published in 1596, and there can be little doubt that Shakspeare was, in part, indebted to it for the arguments resorted to by *Shylock* in pleading for the exaction of his pound of flesh. The whole of Munday's translation, very curious and interesting, is reprinted.

Passing over many details respecting the production of the play on the stage and its subsequent history, and an account of the ballads of 'Gernutus' and the 'Forfeiture,' which, although crowded with illustrative matter, would carry us beyond our limits, we will conclude our notice of this elaborate introduction by a glance at Mr. Halliwell's final criticism upon the *Merchant of Venice*. After drawing attention to the difficulties vanquished by Shakspeare in the construction of a work of the highest literary art out of the most discordant materials, comprised in two narratives, involving the greatest improbabilities, he proceeds to show how the skill of the poet has supplied those motives, and produced that harmony of design, which are wanting in his originals:—

"The form taken by the revenge of *Shylock* is equally appalling with that assigned to a Jew in the older tale; but, in the comedy, the indignities and persecution with which he is assailed in every direction, and which are artistically impressed most deeply on the reader previously to the termination of the trial, present so vividly the extreme oppression he encounters on account of his creed, that our sympathies would have turned towards him, had the nature of his retaliation been less terrible. He is represented as a Jew; not in any degree as the type of an entire race, but because it was requisite, in carrying out the design of the play, to introduce a character belonging to a people towards whom the attribution of a most violent persecution would have been accepted by an audience as intelligible, and within the limits of high probability. Otherwise the character of *Shylock* might have been assigned to an individual belonging to any creed; for most nations occasionally afford the spectacle of men of high intellectual vigour, uncontrolled by the restraining influence of religion, accepting in their own persons the office of avenger, and carrying out their vindictiveness in forms of their own invention. *Shylock* had been trampled upon until his desire for retaliation triumphed over his love for money, and resolved itself into that one feeling which it appears to have been the object of the poet to illustrate in the play. Shakspeare has almost imperceptibly so arranged the course of his arguments, that while they appear to, and do actually, arise perfectly naturally out of his desire for revenge, they are made the medium of inculcating the liberal doctrine, that a man cannot justly be deprived of his rights on account of his religious belief."

In our next, and concluding, notice, we propose to examine the notes to this play. Most of our readers are aware that this edition of Shakspeare is published by subscription, the number of copies being limited to a hundred and fifty. Although many may not, therefore, have an opportunity of personally examining the work, yet all will probably be glad to have some further account of a publication which is an honour to English literature.



*Dred: a Tale of the Great Dismal Swamp.*  
By Harriet Beecher Stowe. Low, Son,  
and Co.

WE may as well satisfy at once the curiosity of our readers as to the title of the new novel by the author of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Dred is a runaway negro, who found a refuge amidst the swamps of South Carolina. The name is not unusual among the slaves, and is generally given to those of great physical power. There was a Dred among the conspirators who were executed in 1831 for the insurrection in Virginia, of which Nat Turner was the leader. Mrs. Stowe makes her Dred the son of Denmark Vesey, another name that will long be remembered in the Southern States as the planner of the Charleston massacre. When that conspiracy was detected, although thousands of slaves were supposed to be implicated, only thirty-six were convicted. Vesey and five other ringleaders were executed, displaying at the trial surprising intelligence and dignity, and meeting their fate with heroic firmness. One of the victims, Peter Poyes, was said to have six hundred names on his list, but so resolutely to the last did he observe the pledge of secrecy to his associates, that of the whole number arrested and tried, not one belonged to his company. From the beginning of the conspiracy Vesey made his son Dred his confidant, and often charged him, though this attempt might fail, not to be discouraged, and never to submit tamely to the yoke of slavery.

"At the time of his father's execution, Dred was a lad of fourteen. He could not be admitted to his father's prison, but he was a witness of the undaunted aspect with which he and the other conspirators met their doom. The memory dropped into the depths of his soul, as a stone drops into the desolate depths of a dark mountain lake. Sold to a distant plantation, he became noted for his desperate unshrinkable disposition. He joined in none of the social recreations and amusements of the slaves, laboured with proud and silent assiduity, but, on the slightest rebuke or threat, flashed up with a savage fierceness, which, supported by his immense bodily strength, made him an object of dread among overseers. He was one of those of whom they gladly rid themselves; and, like a fractious horse, was sold from master to master. Finally, an overseer, harder than the rest, determined on the task of subduing him. In the scuffle that ensued Dred struck him to the earth, a dead man, made his escape to the swamps, and was never afterwards heard of in civilized life.

"The reader who consults the map will discover that the whole eastern shore of the southern states, with slight interruptions, is belted by an immense chain of swamps, regions of hopeless disorder, where the abundant growth and vegetation of nature, sucking up its forces from the humid soil, seems to rejoice in a savage exuberance, and bid defiance to all human efforts either to penetrate or subdue. These wild regions are the homes of the alligator, the moccasin, and the rattlesnake. Evergreen trees, mingling freely with the deciduous children of the forest, form here dense jungles, verdant all the year round, and which afford shelter to numberless birds, with whose warbling the leafy desolation perpetually resounds. Climbing vines, and parasitic plants, of untold splendour and boundless exuberance of growth, twine and interlace and hang, from the heights of the highest trees, pennons of gold and purple—triumphant banners which attest the solitary majesty of nature. A species of parasitic moss wreaths its abundant draperies from tree to tree, and hangs in pearly festoons, through which shine the scarlet berry and green leaves of the American holly. What the mountains of Switzerland were

to the persecuted Vaudois, this swampy belt has been to the American slave. The constant effort to recover from thence fugitives has led to the adoption, in these states, of a separate profession, unknown at this time in any other Christian land—hunters, who train and keep dogs for the hunting of men, women, and children. And yet, with all the convenience of this profession, the reclaiming of the fugitives from these fastnesses of nature has been a work of such expense and difficulty, that the near proximity of the swamp has always been a considerable check on the otherwise absolute power of the overseer.

"Dred carried with him to the swamp but one solitary companion—the Bible of his father. To him it was not the messenger of peace and goodwill, but the herald of woe and wrath. As the mind, looking on the great volume of nature, sees there a reflection of its own internal passions, and seizes on that in it which sympathises with itself—as the fierce and savage soul delights in the roar of torrents, the thunder of avalanches, and the whirl of ocean storms, so is it in the great answering volume of revelation. There is something there for every phase of man's nature; and hence its endless vitality and stimulating force. Dred had heard read in the secret meetings of conspirators, the wrathful denunciations of ancient prophets against oppression and injustice. He had read of kingdoms convulsed by plagues; of tempest, and pestilence, and locusts; of the sea cleft in twain, that an army of slaves might pass through, and of their pursuers whelmed in the returning waters. He had heard of prophets and deliverers, armed with supernatural powers, raised up for oppressed people; had pondered on the nail of Jael, the goad of Shamgar, the pitcher and lamp of Gideon; and thrilled with fierce joy as he read how Samson, with his two strong arms, pulled down the pillars of the festive temple, and whelmed his triumphant persecutors in one grave with himself. In the vast solitudes which he daily traversed, these things entered deep into his soul.

"Cut off from all human companionship, after going weeks without seeing a human face, there was no recurrence of everyday and prosaic ideas to check the current of the enthusiasm thus kindled. Even in the soil of the cool Saxon heart the Bible has thrown out its roots with an all-pervading energy, so that the whole framework of society may be said to rest on soil held together by its fibres. Even in cold and misty England armies have been made defiant and invincible by the incomparable force and deliberate valour which it breathes into men. But when this oriental seed, an exotic among us, is planted back in the fiery soil of a tropical heart, it bursts forth with an incalculable ardour of growth.

"A stranger cannot fail to remark the fact, that though the slaves of the south are unable to read the Bible for themselves, yet most completely have its language and sentiment penetrated among them, giving a Hebraistic colouring to their habitual mode of expression. How much greater, then, must have been the force of the solitary perusal of this volume on so impassioned a nature! a nature, too, kindled by memories of the self-sacrificing ardour with which a father and his associates had met death at the call of freedom; for none of us may deny that, wild and hopeless as this scheme was, it was still the same in kind with the more successful one which purchased for our fathers a national existence.

"A mind of the most passionate energy and vehemence, thus awakened, for years made the wild solitudes of the swamp his home. That book, so full of startling symbols and vague images, had for him no interpreter but the silent courses of nature. His life passed in a kind of dream: sometimes traversing for weeks these desolate regions, he would compare himself to Elijah, traversing for forty days and forty nights the wilderness of Horeb; or to John the Baptist in the wilderness, girding himself with camels' hair and eating locusts and wild honey. Sometimes he would fast and pray for days, and then voices would seem to speak to him, and strange hieroglyphics would be written upon

the leaves. In less elevated moods of mind, he would pursue, with great judgment and vigour, those enterprises necessary to preserve existence.

"The negroes lying out in the swamp are not so wholly cut off from society as might at first be imagined. The slaves of all the adjoining plantations, whatever they may pretend, to secure the good-will of their owners, are at heart secretly disposed, from motives both of compassion and policy, to favour the fugitives. They very readily perceive that, in the event of any difficulty occurring to themselves, it might be quite necessary to have a friend and protector in the swamp; and, therefore, they do not hesitate to supply those fugitives, so far as they are able, with anything which they may desire. The poor whites, also, who keep small shops in the neighbourhood of plantations, are never particularly scrupulous, provided they can turn a penny to their own advantage, and willingly supply necessary wares in exchange for game, with which the swamp abounds. Dred, therefore, came in possession of an excellent rifle, and never wanted for ammunition, which supplied him with an abundance of food. Besides this, there are, here and there, elevated spots in the swampy land, which, by judicious culture, are capable of great productiveness; and many such spots Dred had brought under cultivation, either with his own hands or from those of other fugitives, whom he had received and protected. From the restlessness of his nature, he had not confined himself to any particular region, but had traversed the whole swampy belt of both the Carolinas, as well as that of Southern Virginia, residing a few months in one place and a few months in another. Wherever he stopped he formed a sort of retreat, where he received and harboured fugitives. On one occasion he rescued a trembling and bleeding mulatto woman from the dogs of the hunters, who had pursued her into the swamp. This woman he made his wife, and appeared to entertain a very deep affection for her. He made a retreat for her, with more than common ingenuity, in the swamp adjoining the Gordon plantation; and after that he was more especially known in that locality. He had fixed his eye upon Harry, as a person whose ability, address, and strength of character might make him at some day a leader in a conspiracy against the whites. Harry, in common with many of the slaves on the Gordon plantation, knew perfectly well of the presence of Dred in the neighbourhood, and had often seen and conversed with him. But neither he nor any of the rest of them ever betrayed before any white person the slightest knowledge of the fact. This ability of profound secrecy is one of the invariable attendants of a life of slavery. Harry was acute enough to know that his position was by no means so secure that he could afford to dispense with anything which might prove an assistance in some future emergency. The low white traders in the neighbourhood also knew Dred well; but as long as they could drive an advantageous trade with him, he was secure from their intervention. So secure had he been, that he had been even known to mingle in the motley throng of a camp-meeting unmolested."

This extract has introduced the locality and some of the chief characters of the tale, of which Dred is not the hero, though playing an important part in some of its scenes. The book has a different object than that of disclosing the sorrows and sufferings of the American slave. Some of these are described in the present story more fully than in 'Uncle Tom's Cabin'; and in the history of Dred, and Harry, and 'Old Tiff,' various phases of slave life are strikingly illustrated. But the immediate purpose of the work is to exhibit the effects of the "peculiar institution" on the character and condition of the free population of the States:—

"The author's object in this book is to show the general effect of slavery on society—the various social disadvantages which it brings even on its most favoured advocates—the thriftlessness and misery and backward tendency of all the economical



arrangements of slave states—the retrograding of good families into poverty—the deterioration of land—the worse demoralization of all classes from the aristocratic tyrannical planter to the oppressed and poor white—which is the result of the introduction of slave labour. It is also an object to display the corruption of Christianity which arises from the same source; a corruption which has gradually lowered the standard of the Church, North and South, and been productive of more infidelity than the works of all the Encyclopædists put together.”

As the groundwork of her tale, Mrs. Stowe describes an old property in North Carolina, belonging to Colonel Gordon, the representative of one of the early Scottish settlers in this part of America. At his death he bequeathed to his only daughter, Nina, the estate of Canema, under the care of a mulatto overseer, of whose intelligence, integrity, and devotion he had long had ample proof:—

“Harry was the son of his master, and inherited much of the temper and constitution of his father, tempered by the soft and genial temperament of the beautiful Eboe mulatress who was his mother. From this circumstance Harry had received advantages of education very superior to what commonly fell to the lot of his class. He had also accompanied his master as valet during the tour of Europe, and thus his opportunities of general observation had been still further enlarged, and that fact by which those of the mixed blood seem so peculiarly fitted to appreciate all the finer aspects of conventional life, had been called out and exercised, so that it would be difficult in any circle to meet with a more agreeable and gentlemanly person. In leaving a man of this character, and his own son, still in the bonds of slavery, Colonel Gordon was influenced by that passionate devotion to his daughter which, with him, overpowered every consideration. A man so cultivated, he argued to himself, might find many avenues opened to him in freedom; might be tempted to leave the estate to other hands, and seek his own fortune. He therefore resolved to leave him bound by an indissoluble tie for a term of years, trusting to his attachment to Nina to make this service tolerable. Possessed of very uncommon judgment, firmness, and knowledge of human nature, Harry had found means to acquire great ascendancy over the hands of the plantation; and, either through fear or through friendship, there was a universal subordination to him. The executors of the estate scarcely made even a feint of overseeing him; and he proceeded, to all intents and purposes, with the perfect ease of a free man. Everybody, for miles around, knew and respected him; and had he not been possessed of a good share of the thoughtful forecasting temperament derived from his Scottish parentage, he might have been completely happy, and forgotten even the existence of the chains whose weight he never felt. It was only in the presence of Tom Gordon—Colonel Gordon's lawful son—that he ever realised that he was a slave. From childhood there had been a rooted enmity between the brothers, which deepened as years passed on; and, as he found himself, on every return of the young man to the place, subjected to taunts and ill-usage, to which his defenceless position left him no power to reply, he had resolved never to marry and lay the foundation for a family, until such time as he should be able to have the command of his own destiny. But the charms of a pretty French quadrone overcame the dictates of prudence.”

The estate left to Tom Gordon, the Colonel's only lawful son, was at some distance from that of his sister, with the management of which he often interfered to the great annoyance of Harry. Between the two brothers there is as great a difference in moral character as in outward position. Tom Gordon is a licentious, dissipated, brutal tyrant, while Harry Gordon, though a slave, is a paragon of excellence. Of course Mrs. Stowe will be taken to

task for the broad contrast in the character of the two brothers; but it is quite allowable for the effect of the tale, some of the most stirring incidents of which depend on the cruel treatment to which Harry was exposed. This part of the book is very painful to read, but there is not a statement which is not borne out by recent official documents relating to facts in real life. A ‘Key to Dred’ could be easily compiled, as the ‘Key to Uncle Tom's Cabin,’ of which Mrs. Stowe says that “a most profound silence has always reigned with regard to that book in quarters whence there was the most clamour with regard to the tale.” She adds, that “she has never seen or heard of one attempt to disprove or refute a single statement of the Key.” The same, we believe, may be affirmed of every statement in this book about Tom and Harry Gordon. But we pass to a more pleasant side of the novel. In the opening chapter we are introduced to Nina Gordon, the mistress of Canema, whither she has just returned after finishing her education, such as it was, at a New York boarding school. Harry, of whom she knew nothing but as the manager of the estate, has come to get the New York accounts:—

“‘Bills, Harry? Yes. Dear me where are they? There?—no. Here? O, look! what do you think of this scarf? Isn't it lovely?’

“‘Yes, Miss Nina, beautiful; but—’

“‘O, those bills!—yes. Well, here goes,—here perhaps in this box. No, that's my opera hat. By-the-by, what do you think of that? Isn't that bunch of silver wheat lovely? Stop a bit, you shall see it on me.’

“And with these words the slight little figure sprang up as if it had wings, and, humming a waltzing-tune, skimmed across the room to a looking-glass, and placed the jaunty little cap on the gay little head, and then, turning a pirouette on one toe, said ‘There now! There now!’ Ah Harry, ah, mankind generally! the wisest of you have been made fools of by just such dancing, glittering, fluttering little assortments of curls, pendants, streamers, eyes, cheeks, and dimples.

“The little figure, scarce the height of the Venus, rounded as that of an infant, was shown to advantage by a coquettish morning dress of buff muslin, which fluttered open in front to display the embroidered skirt and trim little mouse of a slipper. The face was one of those provoking ones which sets criticism at defiance. The hair—waving, curling, dancing hither and thither—seemed to have a wild, laughing grace of its own. The brown eyes twinkled like the pendants of a chandelier. The little wicked nose, which bore the forbidden upward curve, seemed to assert its right to do so with a saucy freedom; and the pendants of multiplied brilliants that twinkled in her ears, and the nodding wreath of silver wheat that set off her opera hat, seemed alive with mischief and motion.

“‘Well, what do you think?’ said a lively imperative voice—just the kind of voice that you might have expected from the figure.

“The young man to whom this question was addressed was a well-dressed gentlemanly person of about thirty-five, with dark complexion and hair and deep full blue eyes. There was something marked and peculiar in the square high forehead and the finely-formed features which indicated talent and ability, and the blue eyes had a depth and strength of colour that might cause them at first glance to appear black. The face, with its strongly-marked expression of honesty and sense, had about it many careworn and thoughtful lines. He looked at the little defiant fay for a moment with an air of the most entire deference and admiration, then a heavy shadow crossed his face, and he answered abstractedly—

“‘Yes, Miss Nina, everything you wear becomes pretty, and that is perfectly charming.’

“‘Isn't it, now, Harry? I thought you would think so; you see it's my own idea. You ought to have seen what a thing it was when I first saw it in Madame le Blanche's window. There was a great hot-looking feather on it, and two or three horrid bows. I had them out in a twinkling, and got this wheat in, which shakes so, you know. It's perfectly lovely. Well, do you believe, the very night I wore it to the opera I got engaged.’

“‘Engaged! Miss Nina?’

“‘Engaged! yes, to be sure! Why not?’

“‘It seems to me that's a very serious thing, Miss Nina.’

“‘Serious! ha! ha! ha!’ said the little beauty, seating herself on one arm of the sofa, and shaking the glittering hat back from her eyes. ‘Well, I fancy it was—to him at least. I made him serious, I can tell you.’

“‘But is this true, Miss Nina? Are you really engaged?’

“‘Yes, to be sure I am, to three gentlemen, and going to stay so till I find which I like best. May be, you know, I shan't like any of them.’

“‘Engaged to three gentlemen, Miss Nina?’

“‘To be sure. Can't you understand English, Harry? I am now—fact.’

“‘Miss Nina, is that right?’

“‘Right! why not? I don't know which to take—I positively don't; so I took them all on trial, you know.’

“‘Really, Miss Nina, tell us who they are.’

“‘Well, there's Mr. Carson; he's a rich old bachelor, horridly polite; one of those little bobbing men that always have such shining dicks and collars, and such bright boots, and such tight straps; and he's rich, and perfectly well about me. He wouldn't take No for an answer, so I just said Yes, you know, to have a little quiet. Besides he is very convenient about the opera and concert, and such things.’

“‘Well, and the next.’

“‘Well, the next is George Emmons. He's one of your pink-and-white men, you know, who look like cream candy, as if they were good to eat. He's a lawyer of a good family, thought a good deal of, and all that. Well, really they say he has talents—I'm no judge. I know he always bores me to death, asking me if I have read this or that; marking places in books I never read. He's your sentimental sort, writes the most romantic notes on pink paper, and all that sort of thing.’

“‘And the third?’

“‘Well, you see, I don't like him a bit, I'm sure I don't. He's a hateful creature; he isn't handsome; he's proud as Lucifer; and I'm sure I don't know how he got me to be engaged. It was a kind of an accident. He's real good, though, too good for me, that's a fact. But then, I am afraid of him a little.’

“‘And his name?’

“‘Well, his name is Clayton—Mr. Edward Clayton, at your service.’

After hearing a little more about Clayton, how “he isn't polite; he won't jump, you know, to pick up your thread or scissors; and sometimes he'll get into a brown study, and let you stand ten minutes before he thinks to give you a chair, and all such provoking things. He isn't a bit of a lady's man,” Harry very wisely concluded, “Miss Nina, I think you have given your heart to the last one.” And a heart it was far more worthy of possessing than the reader expects from the opening scene of the story. Suffice it to say, that Mrs. Stowe makes the evils of slavery the means of developing the greatest beauty of character in Nina, and true nobility of soul in Clayton, while the cause of demoralization and deterioration in others. Might not an argument, not in defence, but in extenuation of the existing state of things, be hence deduced? Slavery is an evil, and must come to an end; but meanwhile, as with other evil in the world, some good is brought out of it. If it has corrupted and destroyed

many souls, there are others that have been purified and exalted by its influence; and this is a consolation in considering "the general effect of slavery on society." Contact with this cursed institution, as it exists in the Southern States of America, exalted the light but kind-hearted Nina Gordon into an angel of goodness, and inspired the reserved and saturnine Clayton with the fire and fervour of noblest philanthropy. In describing all the cheerful benevolence of Nina on her estate, and the efforts of the young lawyer in public life in behalf of the slave, Mrs. Stowe finds congenial themes. The sketches of Edward Clayton will suggest to many readers the position and character of the Hon. Charles Sumner; and in one place Mrs. Stowe directly alludes to him, when she says, "This time the blow felled Clayton to the earth; and Tom Gordon, precipitating himself from his saddle, proved his eligibility for Congress by beating his defenceless prisoner on the head, after the fashion of the chivalry of South Carolina." In the preface, written since the author's arrival in London, indignant reference is made to the same outrage:—

"When 'Uncle Tom' was published, sentimental humanity was shocked that its author could represent a Legree beating defenceless Uncle Tom on the head with a cow-hide; but sentimental humanity has lately seen, with her own eyes, the accomplished scholar and gentleman, the senator of a sovereign state, struck down unarmed and unsuspecting, by a cowardly blow, and, while thus prostrate, still beaten by the dastard arm which had learned its skill on a South Carolina plantation.

"Sentimental humanity then loudly declared her belief that the chivalry of South Carolina would repudiate the act. The chivalry of South Carolina presented the ruffian with a cane, bearing the inscription, 'Hit him again,' and presents of silver plate and congratulatory letters from public meetings flowed in, mixed with tender testimonials from the gentler sex; and the cowardly bully, forced by public sentiment to resign his seat, has been, in insulting defiance of that sentiment, triumphantly returned by the citizens of South Carolina; and his act was openly vindicated by Southern members in their places in both houses of Congress.

"After this who will doubt what the treatment of slaves has been, or is likely to be, in the hands of men educated under such influences?—'If these things are done in the green tree, what shall be done in the dry?'"

Other recent political events give confirmation to the statements of the story, and more than justify the severity with which the writer censures the Christian churches and religious professors who sanction or encourage slavery. In her Preface and Appendix Mrs. Stowe makes these statements:—

"The regiment of Colonel Burford, which has distinguished itself by indiscriminate pillage and murder, left Alabama amid an enthusiastic popular concourse, with addresses and prayers from clergymen cheering them on.

"This winter has witnessed the most shocking cold-blooded murders of men in Kansas, for the simple crime of avowing opposition to slavery. The city of Lawrence has been sacked, with atrocities which it was hoped had been discarded in modern warfare; and yet neither the new nor the old school assembly of the Presbyterian church, assembled in their public capacity, have uttered one word indicative of disapprobation of these proceedings, and the defences of slavery in both these bodies have never been so open and unblushing. The same is true with regard to the Methodist general conference, although not quite to the same extent.

"In 1856 we are sorry to say that we can report no improvement in the action of the great ecclesi-

astical bodies on the subject of slavery, but rather deterioration. Notwithstanding all the aggressions of slavery, and notwithstanding the constant developments of its horrible influence in corrupting and degrading the character of the nation, as seen in the mean, vulgar, assassin-like outrages in our national Congress, and the brutal, bloodthirsty, fiend-like proceedings in Kansas, connived at and protected, if not directly sanctioned and in part instigated by our national government;—notwithstanding all this, the great ecclesiastical organizations seem less disposed than ever before to take any efficient action on the subject. This was manifest in the general conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church North, held at Indianapolis during the spring of the present year, and in the general assemblies of the Presbyterian Church, held at New York at about the same time."

These facts are discouraging, and still more so are others which Mrs. Stowe is less ready to dwell upon, especially the behaviour of the 'yellow' people of the Free Northern States to the free coloured people of any darker tinge. To Englishmen this seems almost as bad as the condition of society in the South. It is not from the Northern States that the slaves must expect much sympathy in any future struggle for freedom. Mrs. Stowe seems to recommend a gradual training for emancipation, such as Edward Clayton attempts on his estate. The hostility with which any benevolent efforts of the kind are met renders this hopeless. We fear that the only end of the system will now be a violent one, when, in a time of political trouble, some future Dred will become the Spartacus of a new servile war.

Sympathy for the cause to which Mrs. Stowe has devoted her talents must not blind us to the faults of her writings. Authentic in all essential matters of fact, there is a tendency to exaggeration in details, which is frequently offensive to good taste. Then there are too close repetitions of scenes and of characters. Tomtit in this tale is only another Topsy, not in petticoats. "Old Tiff," too, and Aunt Sue, and Milly, are but reproductions of personages in 'Uncle's Tom's Cabin,' and the nigger slang, especially on religious topics, comes to be tiresome and repulsive. Nor will the English reader be reconciled to the frequent Yankeeisms, however natural they may have been in the mouths of the original speakers. From the first two or three pages of the book may be culled a curious collection of Americanisms, not of diction only, but of life and manners. Harry is a "well-dressed" man, one of the most frequently used epithets in American portraiture. Then we have the note written on "pink paper," the "shining dickies," the bill of 100 dollars for Nina's confectionery; and such phrases as "a real up and down quarrel," "taken with a pious streak," and other racinesses of style and matter worthy of the dialect of Sam Slick. Yet, with all its faults, the new story of Mrs. Stowe will not fail to be popular in this country. The subject of slavery is not one of which the interest is transient, as the agitations of American politics for many a year will show. There are also presented in this tale some comparatively new and abundantly fertile fields of study of character. The account of the camp-meeting, with the motley crowds who gather to it, and the scenes that take place there, is as humorous as the Holy Fair of Burns, while the truthful satire is directed to higher purposes. The sketches of the learned doctors, and popular preachers, and crafty politicians, who make formal arguments in defence of slavery, are

also admirable in their way. As a whole, the story will not make an impression like that of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' but there are passages in it of greater originality and equal descriptive skill.

*Recollections of Travel in Spain.* By E. A. Rossmässler. Leipsic, 1854.

*Reise-Erinnerungen aus Spanien.* Von E. A. Rossmässler. 2 vols. Leipzig, 1854.

OUR readers will probably recollect that we ventured some three years ago to call their attention to the intended expedition of Professor Rossmässler to Spain, chiefly with the view of examining the land and terrestrial mollusca of that country. In consequence of that appeal to the science of England, Professor Rossmässler was enabled to carry out his long projected tour, and the volumes now before us are a portion of the results of that expedition. An acute observer of men as well as a philosophical investigator of natural science, the author could not fail to be struck with the many remarkable peculiarities which characterize the inhabitants of the Peninsula. Spain is the land of contrasts, as has been frequently observed by those who have endeavoured to penetrate within the recesses of her mountains, or to travel over the unmacadamized high roads of her *vegas* and her plains. "Son cosas de España," says the Spaniard, when he feels the impossibility of explaining to a foreigner the social phenomena which result from the contradictory elements of the Spanish character, and which really lie at the bottom of those contrasts which bewilder the stranger when he first enters this land of love and hatred, of pride and humility, of romance and practical life.

But we are not about to write an essay on Spanish life; we would only observe that Professor Rossmässler appears to us as having shown more than usual discrimination in perceiving and in pointing out many interesting features in the Spanish character; and it is most refreshing to observe the *naïveté* and the simplicity with which the cold philosopher of the north, the *ci-devant* member of the Frankfurt parliament, has described the manners and occupations of these wayward and capricious children of the south. Another recommendation of the volumes before us is, that the author has carefully banished his scientific descriptions to those periodicals to which they peculiarly belong, keeping for these pages only enough to point out his pursuits, or what is necessary to illustrate the characteristics of national customs and peculiarities.

Entering Spain on the eastern coast, after a voyage by steamer from Marseilles, the author's route was confined to those provinces which extend along the shores of the Mediterranean from Barcelona to Malaga, with a few short excursions into the interior, to Granada, and other places. His principal object in these volumes has been to describe, on the one hand, the natural aspects of the country, its vegetation, its mountains, its plains and their artificial irrigation, for all of which his talents, as a botanist of the first order, have eminently qualified him; and, on the other hand, he has given a lively sketch of the manners of the people, their social customs, and their free and independent bearings. We will endeavour, by quoting some passages which have interested us, to give our readers some idea of the manner in which Professor Rossmässler has executed his self-allotted task.



His first impressions of Barcelona are thus described:—

"It was Sunday morning, eleven o'clock. My hotel overlooked the Rambla, the most frequented promenade in the town, and my room was on the first floor, so that a peep from my window showed me a living picture. The sun shone bright, and yet it was cold. The Spaniards appeared to think so also, for they were all wrapped up in their cloaks, with the right corner so thrown over the left shoulder as to conceal the chin and mouth. The women were less chilly, but I was annoyed at seeing so many French bonnets side by side with the graceful mantilla.

"I determined to have a nearer view of the crowd, and joined the living stream which flowed up and down the Rambla for about fifteen minutes (three quarters of a mile.) It is a broad street, having in the centre a broad footway planted with acacia trees for pedestrians, with a well-paved road on either side, yet I felt abandoned in the midst of thousands; I was a foreign ingredient. I could not get rid of the thought, of what might have been the result if any occasion had now suddenly compelled me to break through my well-founded silence. Yet the thought was comical rather than alarming. I could not speak a word of Spanish; I only knew enough of French not to die of hunger, and as for Catalanian, which is here exclusively spoken by the middling and lower classes, it was not even to be thought of. I felt like a disguised scoundrel moving about amongst honest people, who look upon him as an honest man. I looked upon every one with the conviction, you are all strangers to me; and all seemed to overlook me under the impression that I was one of themselves. And yet I was to make a first attempt at speaking Spanish to-day, for I was in search of some one to whom I had been recommended."

The following remarks on the nature of the vegetation of the South Eastern parts of Spain are not without interest. Alluding to the different scale which a German naturalist must use in Spain to what he uses at home, he observes that there is a peculiarity in the character of the soil, in those parts of Spain at least which he has visited, influenced in a great measure by the climate and peculiar vegetation, and in its turn influencing the peculiar features of the landscape, as well as the conditions of organic life so interesting to the naturalist at every step. This is in a great measure owing to the almost total absence, in the south eastern part of Spain, of deciduous trees which lose their leaves in autumn. These summer green trees, as the author calls them, as the oak, beech, hornbeam, ash, lime, elm, maple, alder, birch, willow, fruit trees, &c., provide by the falling leaves a great amount of material for the formation of humus. The evergreen trees of Spain also lose a portion of their old leaves every year, but the hard, dry mass lies for an indefinite period on the ground without mouldering and without rotting. It is not unusual to find under the evergreen oaks a bed of dry, brown, green leaves, upwards of a foot deep, which afford neither warmth in winter nor a fertile moisture in the summer to the soil. Again, such a covering of the soil in Germany is a world of countless insects, and other inferior animals, and the bed of a thousand plants. In southern Spain it only forms the catacomb of millions of mummies of dried-up leaves. Our author then describes the influence of these circumstances on the landscape features of a district. The author of 'Kosmos' has not entered on the consideration of landscape scenery as bearing on natural and physical science with more zeal and power of description than the quondam professor of botany at Freiburg.

With regard to the scientific object of his journey, the author mentions that his efforts were greatly facilitated, and his collection of land-shells greatly increased by the extraordinary appetite of the Spaniards for snails. In some districts he found the markets positively swarming with them, so universal is the consumption. And it was no small delight to him to find large baskets full of the most rare species, of some of which not even a single specimen had yet found its way to the best scientific collections of Europe. It says little for the state of natural history in Spain that the author found in the markets of Carthage, Almeria, and Valencia, three species of large terrestrial mollusca hitherto entirely unknown to science, although they existed here in such quantities as to be an article of food. And while only one species of *Helix* (*H. pomatia*) is used as food in the Roman Catholic states of southern Germany, no less than fourteen species are eagerly sought after by the snail-eating Spaniards.

We cannot conclude this notice without calling especial attention to the chapter devoted to an account of the penitentiary system introduced into the correctional prison of Valencia by the governor, Don Manuel Montesinos. With all the boasted improvement of modern civilization, few things are in a less satisfactory condition than the whole question of prison discipline. Not only is the great question of secondary punishment far from being solved, but even the treatment of prisoners before trial, and consequently possibly innocent, is anomalous, arbitrary, and cruel.

After fully describing the enlightened system by which Montesinos first obtained an influence over, and then gradually reformed the convicts placed under his charge, and who for the most part belonged to the most hardened criminals in Spain, he mentions the following golden rule, as one main element in the successful agency of Montesinos. "La penitenciaria solo recibe el hombre, el delito queda a la puerta." The penitentiary only receives the man, the crime remains outside.

He then adds that—

"Montesinos could only obtain the unity and regularity of rule which prevails in the institution, by being himself ever and everywhere present, from earliest dawn, even before the *réveille*, to the final moment of locking up the convicts. All orders proceed from himself alone. In this he has found two rules produce the most salutary results. He does not make the slightest difference in the treatment of the convicts, and thus avoids all preference or partiality, and he never finds fault publicly. In order to carry out the first, he has introduced that great variety of occupations by which the prison is transformed into a workshop. The more delicate physical or bodily organization of a youth of good family who may have gradually fallen into the hands of justice, from thoughtlessness in the first instance, is only distinguished from the highwayman by an occupation adapted to his weaker strength and greater intellectual abilities. The prohibition of speaking to one another makes all the convicts equal, *i.e.*, they all appear as industrious workmen. No one knows the crime of another. Only the most abandoned are separated, as offering too great a risk of contamination, and on them a more than usual care in the moral treatment is bestowed. In the same way the juvenes or youths are separated from the older criminals.

"The fact that Montesinos never publicly finds fault, but always warns the culprit alone, with gentle and persuasive words, carefully avoiding all such expressions as wound self-respect, insult consciousness, and produce hatred, and that he never

threatens, would perhaps appear to many of his colleagues as too great a check on their disciplinary views. For Montesinos it is a duty imposed on him by his humanity, and an absolutely necessary means of improvement."

As an instance of the complete control obtained by Montesinos over the convicts, the author gives an interesting account of an event which occurred during the civil wars of Don Carlos, when Cabrera was in the neighbourhood of a spot where Montesinos had 400 convicts working at the construction of a new road. In order to prevent Cabrera from inducing any of these men to desert to his service, Montesinos proceeded alone to Cabrerillas, as the town could spare no troops to escort him. One night he arrived amongst the convicts, eighteen of whom with an inspector had already deserted to Cabrera. Alone, and without any other protection than the confidence he felt in the influence he had already obtained over them, he conducted these 381 men, most of whom had been condemned for serious crimes, by mountain paths, in order to avoid Cabrera, back again to the town, and Valencia, not without surprise, saw these men, whose escape would have filled the whole country with alarm, willingly submit to be again confined to their prison. Fourteen of the others returned in a few days, and, finally, all but one contrived to escape from Cabrera's hands, and presented themselves at the prison door.

We can confidently recommend these volumes as the work of a man who has evidently travelled with his eyes open, and has described what he saw with great naïveté and acuteness. His interest in the Spanish people he does not conceal, and he believes them capable of much good whenever a more enlightened government shall give them the means and the opportunity of raising themselves from the low state of intellectual culture in which they now exist.

*Memoirs of Frederick Perthes; or, Literary, Religious, and Political Life in Germany, from 1789 to 1843.* From the German of Clement Theodore Perthes, Professor of Law in the University of Bonn. 2 vols. Constable and Co.

No book that has been published in this country gives so thorough an insight into the domestic and social, as well as the religious and political life of modern Germany, as the *Memoirs of Frederick Perthes*. Belonging by birth and occupation to the commercial classes, his mental endowments and moral worth raised him into companionship with the most distinguished men of his time. As we read the story of the worthy Hamburg bookseller, regarding him as "a representative man," a specimen of a respectable burgher of the best class, we cease to wonder how the German fatherland has maintained its position in the march of modern progress, in spite of the vagaries of its philosophy and the perplexities of its politics. The biography of Frederick Perthes extends over a long and important period of history. He began life in the peaceful era, before governments were upheaved or society disturbed by the commotions of the French Revolution. In the stormy times of the Republic and of the Empire, when his native land was involved in the European troubles, Perthes took an active part in public affairs, and suffered many trials and vicissitudes. When the new order of things was inaugu-



rated after the overthrow of Napoleon, he was less immersed in political cares, but his influence was widely felt through his intercourse with the leading statesmen and writers of Germany. In his later years he had removed from the scenes and associations of his early life, having in 1822 established his well-known publishing house at Gotha, where he passed the rest of his days in busy and useful activity, and died in the summer of 1843, in his seventy-second year. In the narrative of his personal history, and the extracts from his correspondence, notices occur of almost all the great men or events of his time. But the Memoirs are on this account less acceptable than for the details they give of the individual experience and pursuits of Perthes, and the pictures of his domestic life. In the dedication of the work, by permission, to Prince Albert, to whom the subject of it was not unknown at Gotha, the Memoirs are truly described as "illustrating the history of Germany in a troubled period, exhibiting the elevation of German intellect, the warmth of the German heart, and the heroism and tenderness of a German wife and mother, in connexion with the career of one who did much to promote the highest interests of his country, and who was honoured with the confidence and friendship of its most distinguished men." Many instances of noble conduct and lessons of highest wisdom may be gathered from the Memoirs of Frederick and Caroline Perthes.

Frederick Perthes was born at Rudolfsstadt in 1772. His father, Secretary of the Exchequer to the house of Rudolph Schwartzburg, died at the age of thirty-seven, leaving his widow and child unprovided for. Frederick Heubel, his maternal uncle, with the aid of an unmarried sister, Caroline, undertook the charge of young Perthes. His first instruction he received at home, and was then sent to the gymnasium of Rudolfsstadt. His biographer records how, from his earliest years, he was fond of books, and devoured with avidity all that came within his reach. At the age of fourteen it was thought necessary to choose a calling for him, and it was resolved to make him a bookseller, a choice partly directed by the boy's own tastes, and partly suggested by the circumstance that his father's youngest brother, Justus Perthes, was a pretty successful publisher at Gotha. Rudolfsstadt could boast in those days of no bookseller. In 1786, Schirach the printer took the boy to the Leipzig Fair to seek a master. Here he met Böhme, of that city, who promised after a year to take him into his service as an apprentice. At fifteen Frederick entered on his occupation, of which ample details are recorded. The account of the German book-trade at this time is very interesting, and the Memoirs throughout contain notices which furnish valuable historical materials on this subject.

"Till the end of the preceding century, the German book-trade had been confined to the north-east of Germany. In the south-west, from Vienna to Ratisbon, with the exception of a few publishers of Catholic books, there was no bookseller; and from Ratisbon to the Tyrol only one—and that in Augsburg. Nuremberg alone was able to supply the trifling demands of this vast tract of country. In Tübingen and Heidelberg, indeed, there were flourishing houses, but the whole north-west, taking Munster as the most advanced literary outpost, was dependent on the scanty supply which Frankfurt could furnish. In the north-east, on the other hand, the book-trade had long before received a vigorous impulse, but till the close of

the second last decade of the century, it was almost entirely confined to the publication and sale of books of science. New works were not then, as now, at once diffused among the various booksellers of Germany. Those publishers whose business was of sufficient importance, visited Leipzig, at Easter and Michaelmas, bringing with them the titles of their most recent publications. They called on each other, showed their title-pages, and after haggling for a while about price and value, they decided how many copies of each other's books they were prepared to take. As they could not be returned if unsold, the greatest caution was exercised in the acceptance of works, and it often happened, consequently, that books ordered by customers were not to be had in any of the widely-dispersed book-shops of Germany. They might, indeed, have been obtained by application to the original publisher, but this would have involved a great expenditure of time and money. A remedy for this inconvenient state of affairs was provided by the establishment, first, at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, and afterwards on a more extensive scale at Leipzig, of large stores from which booksellers could be at once supplied with any books which they might order.

"Böhme carried on such a commission-business in the then sense of this term. In three large rooms he had an important depository of expensive old books, and of all new publications of value—that is to say, of such as he might have sold two or three copies of in the first year after they issued from the press. He had only two private customers—the princely library of Rudolfsstadt, and the historian Anton; but the principal booksellers of Germany were his correspondents. Weekly orders from these [and from the different Leipzig booksellers poured in filling five or six pages. The books required were sought out, deleted in the inventory, and entered in the despatch book, which the principal examined periodically for the purpose of supplying gaps as they occurred. On Rabenhorst's departure the labour of finding and despatching the books ordered devolved on Perthes, and he gave himself to it with pleasure and interest. It excited his astonishment to find that it was possible, by means of the orders continually pouring in from various districts, to form an idea of the scientific necessities of Germany in general; and even, by attention to the special character of the orders proceeding from within certain bounds, to form some conception of the wants of the various districts. To a mind like his, alive to everything, this knowledge was attractive for its own sake, and he early perceived its value to those booksellers who were inclined to take a large view of their trade. At the same time, the many scientific books that passed through his hands, in the course of business, made him acquainted with the names of all the great authors of the preceding century, and gave him at least such an external view of general literature as to rouse in him the desire of obtaining some insight into what was known only by name. In addition to his commission-trade, Böhme was no inconsiderable publisher. Whenever a scientific book was offered to him, he called to his counsils an aged antiquary, who, summer and winter, presided at an open bookstall at the corner of Grimmaer and Ritter-strasse. This man's extensive knowledge and acute intellect gave him great influence with Böhme, and as he had an affection for Perthes, he did not hesitate to make a prudent use of his influence on the boy's behalf, when some excessive severity had led him to complain."

The young apprentice made good use of his opportunities for improving his mind and adding to his information:—

"His inclination and talents would have led him to the study of history and geography, but the prevailing fashion required of every young man who would enjoy any respect for his abilities, that he should be a philosopher as it was called, and Perthes could not resist the mandate. It was in the direction indicated by Kant that salvation was at this period sought. Kiesewetter's logic was the

key to Kant, and Perthes covered whole sheets of paper with tables which were to familiarize him with the terminology and the formulae. Although this wearisome labour never made a philosopher of Perthes, yet his intellect and judgment gained in acuteness. Knigge's work on 'Intercourse with Men,' it was then considered indispensable to have read; Perthes read it, and with great interest; but all the while an inward voice was ever telling him that in this book the root of all evil was worked up into a sort of manual. He sought other food for his spiritual cravings, but in the want of any experienced adviser and guide, his choice was determined by casual influences, or by the spirit of the times. He was for a whole year occupied with Reinhard's 'System of Morality,' and Doederlein's 'Dogmatic Divinity'; but the work that impressed him more deeply than either of these was Garve's 'Translation and Exposition of Cicero De Officiis.'

In the movements of the French Revolution he took deep interest, and he shared in the aspirations which that event produced in most young minds:—

"I believe," he writes in 1792, 'that humanity is now involved in a chaos from which it will emerge with splendour, having made a great step towards perfection. I enclose a little treatise which appears to me admirable; to me such an encouragement is especially needful, as I am surrounded by those who are always exalting the old times and anathematizing the new. Now, according to my notions, the government of one's-self is the only true freedom for the individual; and were all men free in this respect, civil freedom would soon follow, since we should no longer require any executive. But this must be a work of centuries; and were the poor French patiently to endure the pressure of a tyranny that cried to heaven for vengeance till then? No! and they have assuredly done right to emancipate themselves; and as a man, and a citizen of the world, I rejoice in the progress of the French army, although as a German I would fain weep. I regard it as an eternal reproach to us that we recognised the right only after compulsion.'

Love for Frederika Böhme, the daughter of his master, beguiled the time of his apprenticeship, and the story of his romantic passion forms an interesting episode in the biography. His domestic lot was, however, otherwise cast. In 1793 he left Leipzig to enter into the employment of Hoffman the Hamburg bookseller. How he passed his time in Hoffman's service, and how he entered into business on his own account, is related in the Memoirs:—

"Perthes started business in a stirring quarter of the city. 'The house which I have rented,' he writes, 'for a thousand marks, is quite a wonder in Hamburg, for, from top to bottom, all is literary. On the ground floor book-shelves; up one stair the same; up two stairs Dr. Ersch, as editor of the newspaper, recently set on foot; on the third story, Dr. Ersch as *littérateur* and helper's helper to Meusel and his associates; on the fourth, French booksellers in front, and at the back, the sleeping apartments of the young German booksellers; up five stairs a loft, which may be used for a storeroom.' 'My own domestic arrangements,' he tells his aunt, 'are on a small scale, but tolerably neat; I think you would approve of them; at least my love of order is becoming a terror to all the household.' The preparations being all made, Perthes announced the opening of his business by the following advertisement in the 'Hamburg Correspondent,' of the 11th July, 1796:—'I hereby make known that I have established a new bookseller's shop, which is now opened. In my shop the best books published in Germany, old and new, are to be found; and I venture to promise, that I will procure any book which is to be had in other parts of Europe. A portion of my assortment is ready bound, in order to meet the wishes of the reading public more readily, to facilitate to the purchaser the knowledge of what he

is buying, and to supply the wants of the passing traveller more adequately."

After he had been in business some years he married Caroline Claudius, daughter of Claudius of Holstein, a friend of Jacobi. She was a woman of excellent understanding and great worth, and their union was happy:—

"My beloved Perthes," she wrote in 1804, on the anniversary of the day on which he had declared his attachment; "this is the 30th of April, and it is just nine o'clock. Do you remember this very moment this day seven years? I thank God from the bottom of my heart for having made you think of me. I have just come from looking at the children, who are already in bed, and while I gazed on them I had you in my heart; thus, although you are so far away, we are still united. I bless the happy moment in which seven years ago you looked on me, and said 'I love you.' Yes, my ever-beloved Perthes, I thank God, and I thank you, for our happiness. May God continue to be with us and with our children, and preserve us to a peaceful and blessed end."

Of the development of his intellectual and spiritual life, and of his political views as he advanced in life, his letters contain faithful records. His early democratic principles had become much modified:—

"The enthusiasm with which Perthes had, as a very young man, received the intelligence of the French Revolution, was converted to hostility when France declared war against the German empire. It was not in Prussia or in Austria, but in the smaller principalities, that the true national, imperial feeling was to be found, and Perthes, who had been born in one of the petty states, had grown up with a true Kaiser-loving heart. Hamburg, it is true, relying on its foreign relations for its importance, did not afford the materials for a thoroughly German national enthusiasm, but the opposite feeling, at least, had no influence. The earlier leaning in that town towards the French Republic had been weakened by the growing connexion with England."

"Although in the distinguished men with whom Perthes associated, the religious was the predominating element, he still took a lively interest in political events. He was not then committed to any definite political tendencies or doctrines; he remained entirely free, also, from a limited narrow-minded zeal for a particular part of the fatherland to the exclusion of all the rest. His political feelings, thoroughly German, were opposed to the cosmopolitanism which places greater value on political doctrines than on nationalities, as well as to that local or territorial patriotism which cannot see the wood on account of the trees."

We must pass over the references to the political events of the time of the Empire, quoting only a portion of the narrative relating to the occupation of Hamburg by Davoust, when, after taking part in the ineffectual resistance of the citizens, he had to find refuge for a while with his wife and family at Wandsbeck. The state of matters on his return in 1814 is thus described:—

"It was, indeed, no easy task to take up the links of the old life after so long an interval—an interval filled with suffering and privation. Even to render the house habitable was a difficult undertaking. The pleasant and beautiful apartments on the ground-floor had for many months been used by French soldiers as guard-rooms. In the middle of the largest room was a huge stove; trunks of trees had been dragged in through the windows to feed it. All the wood-work that could be pulled down had been burnt; the smoke had found an outlet through the windows. The upper part of the house had been inhabited by General Loison, but even there the soldiers had conducted themselves so riotously, that the whole house was little better than a heap of filth. All the furniture had been taken away; some of it, by kind friends, who had concealed it

where they could, and the rest by the French prefect. There was not a single habitable room—dirt and rubbish, a foot high, covered the floors. Chairs and tables, beds and bedding, and the whole apparatus of the kitchen, had to be replaced; while the want of money and the heart-breaking spectacle of numbers of hungry and sorrow-stricken exiles flocking into the city, made the strictest economy a duty no less than a necessity. It was a heavy reconcomencement for Caroline; but before winter all was once more in order, though not without considerable labour and anxiety. To place the business, which had been entirely broken up, on its former footing was an undertaking of far greater difficulty. A numerous family had to be maintained, and many liabilities to be met."

"On the day following the re-occupation by the French, in the previous year, Davoust had sealed up Perthes' warehouse, and had given notice that all debts due to the firm were to be paid to the French authorities. He then issued an order that all the serviceable books were to be seized and divided between the libraries, schools, and the officials, and the rest sold by auction. A great part of the valuable stock of maps was distributed, some to the topographical bureaux, some to the different generals, while many valuable works fell into the hands of individual officers: the auction was, however, delayed. It was impossible for Perthes to pay any attention to the concerns of the business during his exile, but Besser, his partner in the business, though also an exile, never lost sight of it. Ever watchful, and on the alert to take advantage of any favourable turn to save what might yet be saved, he was ably seconded by the dexterity and zeal of a faithful servant, D'Haspe."

"Before the sale could take place, it was necessary that a catalogue should be prepared; and this Besser, in the expectation of a speedy deliverance from the French, proceeded with as slowly as possible. He gained his object, though Davoust more than once threatened to have the books sold by weight, if the catalogue were not forthcoming. The warehouse being required as a residence for the French officials, the 30,000 volumes which it contained were removed in wagons to another place, and thrown together without any regard to order. The catalogue was nevertheless begun, but before it was ready, the Allies had crossed the Rhine, and, under this change of circumstances, Davoust carefully avoided any step that might have led to claims being made on what he considered as his private property. The books accordingly still remained unsold and in safe keeping."

Of the subsequent events of the life of Perthes we must give some account in a second notice.

#### *Second Supplement to the History of British Birds.* By William Yarrell, V.P.L.S. Van Voorst.

THE possessors of that charming history of the ornithological fauna of our isles, Yarrell's 'British Birds,' will be glad to know of the appearance of a small supplementary number, illustrated to the same perfection, with wood engravings and typographic neatness, as the original. The author has availed himself of the publication of a third edition of the work to include a record of seventeen species new to the British catalogue, fifteen of which are figured and described; and for the benefit of those who possess the previous editions these supplementary sheets are issued separately. How so many species have come to be added, within so comparatively short a period, to the British catalogue, the following interesting remarks on the migration and geographical range of birds chiefly explain:—

"It is worthy of notice that of the more recent additions to our British Birds, half of them are found in North America; the greater portion of

them being species that resort to high northern latitudes in their breeding-season, and have been obtained here, about, or soon after, the time of their autumnal migration to the southward."

"The route pursued by birds from North America to this country is an interesting problem, of difficult solution. Would that the problem might be solved by the following calculations of the comparative numbers of the species found in the different localities of the two countries."

"The list of the Birds of America, as made out by Prince Charles Lucien Bonaparte in his comparative Catalogue of the Birds of Europe and North America, includes of our

|   |              |
|---|--------------|
| British Species   | 24 per cent. |
| The birds of the fur countries and the Arctic Regions, by Sir John Richardson, include on the same plan                           |              |
| The south coast of Greenland  | 33 "         |
| Iceland   | 74 "         |
| The Faroe Islands   | 96 "         |
| The West Coast of Norway  | 92 "         |
| The Birds of Scandinavia  | 88 "         |
| On an intermediate meridian line, including Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the Bay of Fundy, the proportion of British species is | 55 "         |
| Philadelphia, as shown by Prince Charles Lucien Bonaparte in his comparative Catalogue of the Birds of Philadelphia and Rome, has | 32 "         |
| Bermuda, 500 miles east of Carolina   | 58 "         |

"Of the proportions of the two great divisions of these Land and Water Birds, four-fifths belong to the Waders and Swimmers, GRALLATOIRES and NATATOIRES. Of the Land Birds the proportion is only one-fifth, and these, almost confined to the Raptors. Sir John Richardson and Mr. Swainson have remarked that nearly one-third of the American Falconidæ belong also to Europe. The late Mr. Audubon told me that on one of his voyages between this country and America; and when 300 miles from the west coast of Ireland, he saw a Peregrine Falcon pass over the vessel in rapid and vigorous flight; the direction pursued being a line to the Azores."

"The Owls, though some of them only are migratory, from the lightness of their bodies and the large expanse of their wings, appear to fly without much labour. The nephew of Dr. Jenner, when on board a vessel going in a direct course for Newfoundland, and more than 100 leagues from any land, saw a Brown Owl gliding over the ocean with as much apparent ease as when seeking for a mouse over its own native fields."

"The late William Thompson of Belfast, in his Natural History of Ireland, records, vol. i. p. 102, from the log-book kept on board the *John and Robert*, of 500 tons, Captain M'Keechie, from Quebec to the port of Belfast, that from thirty to forty Snowy Owls, on the 16th of November, 1838, where seen when the vessel was 250 miles from the straits of Belleisle. Several followed the ship; from fifty to sixty were seen on the 18th, some alighting on the rigging and yards; three were caught and taken to Belfast alive. The last of those seen at sea was on the 20th of November, the vessel then near 700 miles from Belleisle, and sailing along in latitude 54°, or nearly so. The ship arrived at Belfast early in December, but had been driven out of her course in the commencement of the voyage by contrary winds."

"Mr. Swainson has remarked that 'it is among the insectivorous or soft-billed birds that the principal ornithological features of any extensive region will be traced.'

"That the obtaining an equalisation of temperature has its influence in migration, as well as a search for food, may, I think, be inferred from the circumstance that the summer visitors to this country, coming as they do from the south, leave the winter temperature of North Africa, averaging 55°, for England, where the summer heat averages 63°, only eight degrees higher than that of the countries they leave, rather than remain where the summer temperature reaches an average of 79°, making a difference of 24°; and thus also our winter visitors, coming as they do from the North, find our winter temperature of 40° to be within seven or eight degrees of the temperature of the country they came from; and we observe that the



more severe our winter is, the further south these our winter visitors go.

"It is known that a marked difference exists in the average temperature of places in similar parallels of latitude on the western coasts of the Old World and the eastern coasts of the New World, as a glance at the undulations of the isothermal lines will exhibit. Thus the isothermal line at Boston gives the same temperature as that of London, though Boston appears to be ten degrees further south; and Iceland appears to be as warm as the south point of Greenland, though situated five degrees farther north.

"The undulations of the isothermal lines, and the higher comparative temperature of the western shores of Europe, may exercise some influence in the route of water birds crossing the northern portion of the Atlantic; while the large patches of floating sea-weed, sometimes occupying half an acre or more, and teeming with aquatic animal life in its various stages, as observed by those who cross the more southern part of the Atlantic, afford both rest and food to many. Thus birds of great and enduring powers of flight, able moreover to obtain both food and rest on the surface of the sea, may reasonably be expected to have a wide geographical range; and of these powers the long-winged web-footed species are good examples.

"It is sometimes difficult to make a just estimate of the powers of flight. The Rev. Robert Holdsworth wrote me word that a Water Rail alighted on the yard of a man-of-war, about 500 miles to the westward of Cape Clear, and at the same distance from any known land. An officer of the ship caught it, and took care of it, and carried it with him to Lisbon, feeding it with bits of raw meat. In a day or two it became perfectly tame, and would eat out of his hand.

"By the kindness of two officers of the Royal 42nd Highlanders, stationed at Bermuda, I received the skin of a Landrail, shot there. This bird is not found in the New World, and could only have reached Bermuda under the influence of a strong north-east wind, and thus saved its life, for a time, by making that island.

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|--|-----|
| The number of our British Birds is . . .       | 354 |
| Of which those resident all the year are . . . | 140 |
| Summer visitors . . . . .                      | 63  |
| Winter visitors . . . . .                      | 48  |
| Occasional visitors . . . . .                  | 103 |
|  | 354 |

"With respect to Sir John Ross's pigeons, as far as I can recollect, he despatched a young pair on the 6th or 7th of October, 1850, from Assistance Bay, a little to the west of Wellington Sound, and on the 13th of October, a pigeon made its appearance at the dovecot in Ayrshire, from whence Sir John had the two pairs of pigeons which he took out. The distance direct between the two places is about 2000 miles. The dovecot was under repair at this time, and the pigeons belonging to it had been removed; but the servants of the house were struck with the appearance and motions of this stranger. After a short stay it went to the pigeon-house of a neighbouring proprietor where it was caught, and sent back to the lady who originally owned it. She at once recognised it as one of those which she had given to Sir John Ross, but to put the matter to the test, it was carried into the pigeon-house, when out of many niches it directly went to the one in which it had been hatched. No doubt remained in the mind of the lady of the identity of the bird."

"By what extraordinary power did this interesting bird find its way, and by what route did it come?"

These are curious facts for the naturalist, and give large additional interest to ornithological pursuits. Thanks to Bewick, Yarrell, Thompson, and others, there is no country of which the habits of birds have been so thoroughly observed as our own, and none in which the observations have been recorded in so genial and pleasant a style.

## PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

*Dred: a Tale of the Great Dismal Swamp.* By Harriet Beecher Stowe. Sampson Low, Son, and Co.  
*Out and "Home:" with a Few other Memorials of the late Rev. William G. Tupper, M.A.* Edited by his Brother. Bosworth and Harrison.  
*Calisthenics; or, the Elements of Bodily Culture, on Pestalozzian Principles: a Contribution to Practical Education.* By Henry de Laspée. Darton and Co.  
*Eveleen.* By E. L. A. Berwick. Author of 'The Dwarf,' &c. 3 vols. Smith, Elder, and Co.  
*The Barber's Shop.* By Richard W. Proctor. With Illustrations by William Morton. Manchester: Dinham and Co.  
*Vestigia.* By "One of the Million." Saunders and Otley.  
*The Shadow of the Yew, and other Poems.* By Norman B. Yonge. Saunders and Otley.  
*A Summer Daydream, and other Poems.* By Theta. Saunders and Otley.

UNDER the title of 'Out and Home,' meaning the last long home, Mr. Martin Tupper has published a brief memoir of a beloved brother, who died at the age of thirty, when returning from a voyage for his health to the East Indies. The dates and incidents of his life are thus recorded:—

"William George Tupper, the youngest and fifth surviving son of the late Martin Tupper, Esq., of New Burlington-street, London, was born on the 9th of December, 1824. He was educated principally at Winchester under the Rev. Dr. Moberley, to whom he became very much attached. At school he gave evidence of his abilities in gaining the Heathcote and other prizes. Thereafter he took the Blount Scholarship at Trinity College, Oxford, but his health breaking down, and his eyesight becoming affected from over-exertion in his studies, he was forced to limit further undoubted successes. After taking his degrees of B.A. and M.A. in the usual course, he was ordained Deacon at St. Paul's Cathedral in June, 1849, when he accepted a curacy under the Rev. William Harness in the new district of All Saints, Knightsbridge; and here he laboured hard and heartily among the poor and in the National Schools, and was also especially interested in the building and decoration of the church. In June, 1850, he was ordained Priest at the Chapel Royal, St. James's, and in December of the following year became Warden of the House of Charity in Soho, where he zealously devoted both his means and his remaining energies to the service of God and the poor. Indeed, his Warden-ship of the House of Charity was, in every way, a self-sacrifice; and, when it was too late, the sea voyage here recorded was enjoined on him by his friends and his physicians as the best hope of recovery. However he died, in his thirtieth year, on the 15th of May, 1854, and was buried at sea, soon after leaving Malta, on the passage homewards in the *Ripon*: a plain mural cross is placed to his memory at Kensal Green Cemetery, adjoining the tablets of his father and mother." From what we have heard of William Tupper, we believe there is no brotherly exaggeration in the description given of his "daily walk and conversation, which combined the strictest self-denial with the sweetest cheerfulness, a short life spent in secret good-doing, the tongue of gentleness, the heart of love, the mind of sympathy and wisdom—in brief, a character of surpassing beauty, wedded to no common powers of intellect." The memorials now printed chiefly consist of notes written during his voyage, extracts from letters, three sermons preached on board ship on the way to the Cape of Good Hope, and some miscellaneous pieces in prose and verse. Many manuscripts were found among his effects, but an injunction that they were to be burnt unread, forbade the examination of them. The present volume is a pleasing and interesting memorial of a good man. Of the various places touched at during the voyage out to India, or afterwards visited, lively sketches are given, the impressions of an observant and impressive traveller. Mr. Tupper passed some time in Ceylon, and his journal contains notices of the various mission stations on the island.

The author of the treatise on Calisthenics strenuously asserts the dignity and usefulness of bodily culture, for the promotion of which he maintains that his system is the best that has been invented.

The variety of positions, attitudes, and exercises described, recommended, and illustrated in M. de Laspée's book is astonishing. Many useful hints may be found in the book, but a large number of the exercises can never possibly be of use except amateur theatricals are to become common family amusements in this country. For training columbines and harlequins we would recommend an early course of training in M. de Laspée's calisthenics. The volume may be usefully consulted by teachers and parents, who may gather practical hints from it in the physical training of the young. The author draws a distinction between calisthenics and gymnastics, against the latter of which he vehemently declaims, as conducing to strife, violence, and other evils. The revolutionary era of 1848, he says, was caused by the extreme use of gymnastics in the German school system. "Until the year 1848, they were cultivated with such ardour and spirit, that there was scarcely a town or village in Germany which had not its gymnasium, under the protection of its government. But what was the result of this? Could these gymnastics have produced any other effect than the one for which the ancients intended them, and whose object they served, thoroughly rendering their warriors seeking liberty and freedom for the passions and desires fostered by them? Can it be supposed they would tend to promote that peace which is inculcated and produced by Christianity? Surely not, or they would have failed as a means to the success obtained through them by the ancients. And thus, as often as they were introduced by governments, they led to the same results as those for which they were practised by the ancients. Of this the revolution that broke out in 1848, in Germany, gives a striking proof. Just as the practice of gymnastics was in full operation, and its effect on body and mind had reached its climax, the unnatural strength of the body, and its thereby excited senses, sought an outlet; thought, reflection, and good sense succumbed, and all that government did to arrest the monster in its progress could not prevent its bursting out into a revolution. The strongest men, the teachers and their best disciples in muscular power, became its leaders. Their strength, at the first outbreak of the revolution, struck every one with awe and terror; and all submitted to their dictates. Thus physical strength once more attained supremacy, and before it lay mighty princes and nations prostrate. Had this bodily agent been the obedient servant of a highly endowed mind, had it been guided by wisdom and understanding, the conquests obtained by it would have remained in its possession. But it was not so, and, strength having triumphed over the weakness around it, its warlike spirit turned against itself, until at last refuge from its horrors was sought in the counsel and aid of intellect. The extreme of intellect conquered the extreme of bodily culture. Gymnastics, in their basis and object, have proved a thorough failure on educational grounds; and though governments abroad have anew introduced them, they cannot fail, if not stopped in time, to produce another race of contentious men, instead of good and peaceful subjects. May this friendly warning not prove too late! and may other governments, particularly our English government, which has not yet meddled with the subject, be kept from falling into the same error." Although not provided by the state, "manly sports" are not unknown in England, yet without producing these dire effects! M. de Laspée assures us that no evils result from the milder exercises included under his calisthenics. For boys of more delicate frame, and for females, they may be recommended.

Eveleen is an Irish tale, in which many well-marked *dramatis personæ* are introduced, with a succession of incidents which effectually sustain the reader's attention. The most interesting portion of the story is where Eveleen Redgrave, who is the narrator, tells how she baffled Mr. Cabell O'Fea's attempts to gain her cousin, Mary Barrington. In the delineation of O'Fea, the villainy of the Sadleirs and the violence of the ruffian who lately tried to carry off an heiress by force, form



only part of the bad stuff of which he is made. That the author does not trust altogether to startling effects, or involved incidents, or sentimental scenes, the following paragraph of sensible comment occurring in the course of the story may serve to illustrate:—"True it was, the antecedents of Miss Hetherington's progenitors were not rashly to be alluded to; but rich men are always respectable: the wealthy descendants of a grocer or a drysalter are sure of a welcome reception among the titled, so long as the sugar-bin or oil-flask leave no trace on the emblazoned escutcheon which marks a new generation. Besides, the Irish are, as everybody knows, a mercurial and susceptible people, with a quick eye for beauty and an uncontrollable desire for novelty, whenever and where-soever it is to be had. A new acquaintance to them is always a new pleasure, until the gloss wears off; and then it is by no means impossible that the diamond of to-day may find itself the pebble of to-morrow. I do not by any means intend to underrate or undervalue the thousand-and-one good qualities of my own dear countrymen, patent and acknowledged as they are, when I say that a headlong rush into first impressions frequently gives an air of infelicity to their subsequent acts. Their natural and kindly impulse hurries them into a show of fervour, which sometimes impairs their character for constancy and good faith, and brands them with the characteristics of superficiality and outward seeming, which in reality they do not deserve."

The Barber's Shop, by Richard Wright Proctor, with illustrations by William Morton, is as amusing a little book as its title would lead the reader to expect. Gossiping anecdotes of the trade, as practised in Manchester, are mingled with stories of eccentric or notable customers, and records of the writer's observations and experience in life. Some of the anecdotes we have reserved for extract. The illustrations are very creditable to Manchester art.

Vestigia is a volume partly prose and partly verse, some of the latter less distinguished from the former by the ear than by the eye, thanks to the arrangements of printing. This remark chiefly applies to a dramatic poem, entitled "Life Glimpses of an Idealist," the scene of which is in Sicily, where some Englishmen fall in with stirring adventures. Although dissatisfied with the literary skill of the writer, we are pleased with the spirit of the drama, and some of the minor poems are pleasing in their diction, as well as striking in their subjects.

The Shadow of the Yew, by Mr. Norman Yonge, is a poem, chiefly consisting of meditations and reflections, the different cantos presenting much variety of metre. Tennyson and Tupper appear to be the author's immediate favourites, the style of the former and the sentiments of the latter being often suggested to the reader of the poem. Some really good passages we have marked for quotation in our next review of recent books of verse.

The poems of Theta may be admired in the circle of the author's friends, but have not merit to attract any public notice.

#### New Editions.

*The Works of Shakespeare: the Text carefully restored according to the First Editions. With Introductions, Notes, Original and Selected, and a Life of the Poet.* By the Rev. H. N. Hudson, A.M. Vols. VII. to X. Boston and Cambridge, U.S.: Munroe and Co.

*Two Years' Residence in a Levantine Family.* By Bayle St. John. Cheap Edition. Chapman and Hall.

*Maretime: a Story of Adventure.* By Bayle St. John. Cheap Edition. Chapman and Hall.

*Cardinal Mazzoni; or, Twenty Years After: a Romance.* By Alexander Dumas. Hodgson.

MR. BAYLE ST. JOHN'S experience of the East was procured at a time when those regions were less familiar to Western Europe than they have become by recent events. His long residence, also, gave him opportunities of observing the life and manners of the people, not often within the reach of passing travellers. The narrative of *Two Years' Residence in a Levantine Family*, conveys lively and faithful impressions of the domestic and social

life of the middle classes in Egypt and in Syria. In the story of Maretime there are abundant incidents and adventures to please readers of fiction; but the best parts of the book are those in which sketches of life and descriptions of scenery are introduced from the writer's own remembrance of "the isles of Greece."

#### Miscellaneous, Pamphlets, &c.

*Prize Essay on the Prevention of the Smoke Nuisance.* By Charles Wye Williams. Weale.

*Scottish Philosophy, the Old and the New.* A Statement by Professor Ferrier. Edinburgh: Sutherland and Knox.

*A Few Friendly Words to Young Mothers.* By one of the Maternity. Wertheim and Macintosh.

*Hints on Dress for Ladies.* By Mrs. A. Adams. Groombridge and Sons.

*The Fisherman.* Wertheim and Macintosh.

*The Outcast.* English Monthly Tract Society. J. Shaw.

*On the Reduction of the Wine Duties.* Ward and Lock.

To the Essay on the Prevention of the Smoke Nuisance, by Mr. Charles Wye Williams, was awarded the special gold medal given by the Society of Arts. The subject is treated by Mr. Williams under the following heads:—1. On the question generally considered, of preventing the smoke nuisance. 2. Of the various plans which have been put forth as remedies. 3. Of the plans which affect to burn smoke by bringing it into connexion with incandescent fuel. 4. Of the plans which rely on the use of hot air. 5. Of the plans which rely on the use of mechanical applications. 6. Of effecting combustion, and avoiding the formation of smoke, by due attention to the introduction of atmospheric air. 7. Of the expense or economy of the proposed plans, in erecting and working. 8. Of the nature and properties of smoke. 9. Of the practical application of the principles here explained, and the proposed remedial measures. 10. Of legislative measures, applied to the prevention of the smoke nuisance. Mr. Williams is the patentee of a method of smoke consuming, to which he naturally gives the preference, chiefly based on securing the due supply of atmospheric air. Certificates from those who have tried various methods have attested the superiority of the apparatus planned by the author of this treatise, which therefore strongly deserves the attention of builders, engineers, manufacturers, and all whose interest it is to consume the smoke produced in furnaces.

Professor Ferrier's Statement on the Scottish Philosophy, the old and the new, is a pamphlet chiefly pertaining to the personal controversies of the recent election to the chair of Logic and Metaphysics at Edinburgh. "Having felt myself," says Professor Ferrier, "under the necessity of making a few public explanations in reference to my philosophical position in consequence of the suspicion or slur which to some extent may possibly have been thrown upon it by the recent unfavourable decision of the Town Council of Edinburgh, I have drifted into a somewhat personal strain." Without interfering with these unseemly and local personalities, we will take an early opportunity of examining Professor Ferrier's statement of the principles of the new philosophy. The publication of this pamphlet affords additional proof how dangerous it might have been to have substituted the speculative vagaries of *a priori* metaphysics for the sound inductive philosophy of Reid and Hamilton.

Of the details of the little tract addressed to young mothers, with remarks upon monthly nurses and nurses in general, we cannot be expected to give an opinion; but the fact of the work being dedicated to Dr. Conquest, by his permission, affords security for its containing safe and sensible advice, as is the case in other publications by the same writer.

The Hints on Dress for Ladies, by Mrs. Adams, were originally contributed as a series of papers to the 'Family Herald.' Besides giving plain and practical instructions to sempstresses, on a variety of articles of female dress, the book contains useful hints on work intended for the other sex. The author describes her intention as being "to encourage the timid to exertion, to give help to the

industrious, and to set out in a plain and simple manner a few directions upon those matters which are not easily comprehended by the novice."

The Fisherman and The Outcast are short religious tales, well written, and worthy of being widely circulated.

A pamphlet on the reduction of the Wine Duties contains a report of the meeting of the Anglo-French Free-trade Association at the Crystal Palace, July 9th, 1856, Report of the Debate in the House of Commons on Mr. Oliveira's motion on the 16th of the same month, and other documents relating to the question.

#### List of New Books.

Addresses to Medical Students, 12mo, cloth, 2s. 6d.  
Africa's Mountain Valley, 2d edn, fcap, 8vo, cloth, 3s. 6d.  
Bohn's French Memoirs: Sully, Vol. III., post 8vo, cloth, 2s. 6d.  
— Classical Library: Pliny's Natural History, Vol. V., cl. 8.  
Breed's Railway Practice, 1 vol. 4to text, and 1 vol. folio plates, 43 8s.  
Castle's (J.) Elementary Textbook for Young Surveyors, 12mo, 6s.  
Cockton's Stanley Thorn, 12mo, boards, 2s.  
Collins's (J. D.) Praxis Græca, Part 2, 12mo, cloth, 3s.  
Gawshaw's (Rev. J.) Facts about Boys, 16mo, cloth, 1s. 6d.  
De Forquet's French-English and English-French Dictionary, 4s. 6d.  
English Cyclopædia of Biography, Vol. II., 4to, cloth, 10s.  
Gosnell (The) Bled into one Narrative, 12mo, cloth, 1s.  
Gwynne's (T.) Young Singleton, 2 vols. 8vo, cloth, 4s. 1s.  
Kidd's (W.) Book of British Song Birds, post 8vo, cl., illustrated, 1s.  
Lardner's Museum, Vol. II., 12mo, boards, 1s. 6d.  
— Handbook of Astronomy, Vol. I., 12mo, cloth, 5s.  
Lynch's (Mrs. H.) Wonders of the West India, fcap, 8vo, cl., 5s.  
Mackenzie's (F. L.) Early Death, &c., 2d edn, crown 8vo, cl., 4s.  
Mazzoni's Betrothed, 12mo, boards, 2s.  
Neale's (Rev. J. M.) Farm of Aptonga, fcap., cloth, 2s.  
Out and Home: Memoirs of G. W. Tupper, 12mo, cloth, 5s.  
Porter's (S. T.) Lectures on Independence, 12mo, cloth, 6s.  
Quiggin's Illustrated Guide through the Isle of Man, 2s. 6d.  
Rationale of Justification by Faith, 12mo, cloth, 3s.  
Ruskin's (J.) King of the Golden River, 3rd edit., square, cl., 2s. 6d.  
Sharp's (W.) Investigation of Homeopathy, 8vo, cloth, 5s.  
Simon's Faculties, by Maynard, new edition, 18mo, roan, 4s.  
Sinclair's (C.) Beatrice, 12mo, boards, 2s.  
— Lord and Lady Harcourt, 12mo, boards, 1s. 6d.  
Singer's Shakespeare, fcap, 8vo, cloth, 6s.  
Taylor's Geography, new edition, fcap., cloth, 2s.  
Williams's (C. W.) Smoke Nuisance, imperial 8vo, sewed, 2s. 6d.  
Wyatt's (J.) Bedford Schools, &c., 8vo, boards, 2s. 6d.

#### ARTICLES AND COMMUNICATIONS.

##### M. CONSTANT PRÉVOST.

ANOTHER eminent geologist, M. Constant Prévost, died on the 16th instant, at his residence, Armon (Seine et Oise), at the age of 70. The first scientific communication by M. Prévost of which we have any record was a paper written in conjunction with M. Desmarest, and read before the Société Philomathique de Paris in 1809, entitled, 'Sur des Empreintes de Corps Marins trouvées à Montmartre dans plusieurs couches de la masse inférieure de la formation gypseuse.' MM. Cuvier and Brongniart had presented a memoir to the Institute, on the 'Géographie Minéralogique des Environs de Paris,' in which they observed impressions of a freshwater mollusc in the lower bed of their gypsous formations, mingled with marine fossils; and MM. Prévost and Desmarest undertook to show, in opposition to the opinion of Lamarck, that the gypsum had been held in solution during the alternate displacement of the sea by fresh water. Twelve years afterwards, M. Prévost published a memoir in the 'Journal de Physique,' on the same subject, 'Sur un Nouvel Exemple de la Réunion de Coquilles Marines et de Coquilles Fluviales Fossiles dans les mêmes Couches,' and again the following year, 'Observations sur les Grès Coquilliers de Beauchamp, et sur les Mélanges de Coquilles Marines et Fluviales dans les mêmes Couches.' In 1820, M. Prévost communicated an important paper to the Academy of Sciences, entitled, 'Essai sur la Constitution Physique et Géologique du Bassin à l'Ouverture duquel est située la Ville de Vienne en Autriche,' which was highly reported upon by M. Brongniart. "The facts," said his learned colleague, "which we have been able to verify being very exact, the results of the author's reasoning appear just, wise, interesting, and new." M. Prévost still continued his researches into the origin of the mixture of marine and freshwater fossils in the same beds, and in 1827 submitted to the Academy two papers, 'Les Continents Actuels ont-ils été, à plusieurs Reprises, submergés par la Mer?' and 'Essai sur la Formation des Terrains des Environs de Paris.' Upon these memoirs M. Cuvier, being requested

to report on them, pronounced the following generous but guarded opinion:—"Le grand problème de la géologie est tellement indéterminé, qu'il offrira pendant long-temps de l'exercice aux combinaisons de l'esprit: heureux du moins lorsque ceux qui se livrent à ce genre de spéculation ont soin, comme M. Prévost, de chercher dans les faits des appuis à leurs conjectures. Ils enrichissent véritablement la science, pour peu qu'un rapport nouveau, une superposition inaperçue, des débris jusque-là inconnus, s'offrent à leurs regards, et c'est seulement lorsque le trésor qu'ils concourent à agrandir aura été complété, que l'on sera en état de rendre justice à leur sagacité, et d'assigner le degré de justesse avec lequel chacun d'eux avait conçu ses hypothèses."

The latest event of interest in M. Prévost's scientific career was a voyage which he made in 1831, at the invitation of the Academy of Sciences, to gather observations relative to the appearance of the new volcanic island in the Mediterranean, to which the name of Julia had been given, but which disappeared whilst the volcanic phenomena of its elevation were being examined. M. Prévost presented a report of his mission, in which many interesting facts are recorded; but the bearings of his inquiry on the general geological question of the elevation of craters and the formation of mountains were not of great moment, if we may judge from the tone of the closing paragraph of the memoir:—"Car je le dis sans réserve; après avoir vu naître et disparaître l'île Julia, après m'être élevé sur l'Etna, après avoir étudié toutes les formations sous-marines de la Sicile, avoir examiné la structure des cônes de Stromboli, être descendu dans les cratères de Vulcano, avoir gravi à plusieurs reprises le Vésuve, et l'antique Somma qui l'enveloppe; après avoir cherché à Ischia, dans les champs phlégréens et dans la campagne de Rome, les fondemens et les preuves de l'hypothèse séduisante que de confiance j'adoptais à Paris, et que je démontrerais même aux autres, je n'ai rien trouvé qui ait satisfait mon esprit favorablement prévenu, et je ne comprends plus rien aux cratères de soulevement."

The philosophic candour of this confession is as rare as it is remarkable, and well illustrates M. Prévost's scientific character. Careful in obtaining facts, and cautious in drawing conclusions, he was ever more solicitous for the advancement of truth than the increase of his own reputation. M. Prévost was Professor of Geology at the Faculty of Sciences of Paris, and a foreign member of the Geological Society of London.

#### THE RECENT ASCENT OF ARARAT.

THE ascent of Mount Ararat last month by five Englishmen, as reported in 'The Times' of the 22nd instant, by Major Robert Stuart, one of the party, is a memorable enterprise, though the narrator is scarcely correct in saying that "no record or tradition exists of the ascent having ever been made before." Several attempts are known to have proved unsuccessful, in one of which M. Abich reached within 1200 feet of the summit. But of an earlier ascent, that of Professor Parrot, of St. Petersburg, and M. Schieman, in 1829, an account has been published, the authenticity of which in its main features is fully confirmed by Major Stuart's narrative. It was natural for the Armenian priesthood to deny the success of the attempt, as they profit largely by the superstitious awe with which the mountain is invested. The people of these regions believe that the ark is still preserved on the summit, and a popular legend relates how an angel brought to a monk a piece of the sacred vessel, which is now kept as a relic in the neighbouring convent of Etchmiadsin, the seat of the patriarch of the Armenian Church. The doubts that have since been expressed as to Professor Parrot's ascent, have been on the ground of the physical difficulties of the enterprise. These are now removed by the repetition of the ascent; and it is only fair that the honour of the first success should be given where it is due.

We give the narrative of Major Stuart without

interruption, appending extracts from that of M. Parrot, an account of which will be found in Vol. xviii. of 'Chambers's Pocket Miscellany':—

"On the 11th inst. a party, consisting of Major Alick J. Fraser, the Rev. Walter Thurstby, Mr. James Theobald, jun., of Winchester, Mr. John Evans, of Darley Abbey, Derbyshire, and myself, started from Bayazid on this new expedition. We were accompanied by two servants and a zaptieh, or native policeman, and by the kindness of the Kaimakan, Hadjee Mustapha Effendi, we were consigned to the special charge of Issak Bey, a chief of the Ararat Kurds, under whose safeguard we had nothing to fear from the plundering habits of his followers. At Bayazid we had provided ourselves each with a stout pole between five and six feet long, furnished with a spike at one end and a hook at the other.

"Crossing the plain of Ararat, we commenced the ascent through a wide ravine, enclosed between vast ridges of volcanic rock. For three hours we wound our way through rugged defiles, occasionally traversing fertile plateaus, verdant with growing crops of wheat and barley. Our surefooted little horses, accustomed to this sort of work, picked their way through the most breakneck places, and brought us in safety to the black goats'-hair tents of our host, which were pitched on some pasture lands on the southern slope of Greater Ararat, about 8,000 feet above the level of the sea. Hither the Kurds resort in summer with their flocks and herds, returning to the villages of the plain at the approach of winter.

"A portion of the chief's tent was set apart for our use; the floor was covered with gay-coloured carpets, a fat sheep was killed, and everything was supplied that Kurdish hospitality could suggest.

"At 3 o'clock next morning we were on the move, all except Mr. Thurstby, who, to our regret, was obliged by indisposition to remain in the tent. Three hours of continued ascent on foot brought us to the base of the cone. Here Major Fraser bore off to the south-east, and took a line of his own, while Mr. Theobald, Mr. Evans, and I, commenced the ascent on the southern side, keeping to the snow, which presented an unbroken surface to the very summit.

"To my two friends, who are experienced Alpine climbers, this was easy work, but it soon began to tell unfavourably on my unaccustomed limbs. For a time we kept pretty well together; by degrees, however, Mr. Theobald began to forge ahead, followed by Mr. Evans, while I brought up the rear as well as I could. But my strength was fast giving way, and when about half-way up the cone I found myself utterly unable to proceed any further. Accordingly, there being no alternative but to descend, I sat on the snow and shot down with the velocity of an arrow, undoing in a few minutes the laborious toil of nearly three hours. This was a keen disappointment, amply repaid to me, however, as will appear by and by.

"At the foot of the cone I found Issak Bey, who with a couple of his people had come out to watch our progress. He looked on my failure as a matter of course, and seemed to think the others, too, must soon give in; but no, up they went higher and higher, his interest and surprise keeping pace with their ascent.

"For some hours we watched their upward course, the sharp naked eye of the Kurd plainly discerning what I was able to see only with the aid of a telescope. At length, at 1:45, Mr. Theobald crowned the summit. Great was the astonishment of the chief. 'Mashallah,' he exclaimed, 'God is great! What wonderful people these English are! A few of them come here, and without any difficulty walk to the top of that holy mountain—a thing that never was done by man before. Wonderful, wonderful!'

"At 2:50 Mr. Evans reached the summit. He and Mr. Theobald made the descent together, by the same track that they ascended, and returned to the tents about sunset.

"We must now follow the movements of Major Fraser, who, as already stated, took a line of his own. Not being accustomed like the others to

snow work, he chose a ridge of stone, which led up about two-thirds of the ascent. Over this he made his way without much difficulty, and then, taking to the snow, he patiently toiled upwards till within a few hundred feet of the summit. Here, in attempting to cross over to what appeared a more practicable line, he slipped on some thinly-covered ice, and losing all control over himself, he shot down with fearful velocity, now head, now foot foremost, over a space of about a thousand feet. By wonderful efforts and presence of mind he succeeded in arresting his perilous descent, and, scrambling with difficulty to a rocky ridge that protruded above the snow, he climbed over it with immense labour; and thus recovering his lost way, he won the height about 3:30, having been thrown back full three hours by his mishap. He descended on the traces of Messrs. Theobald and Evans, and regained the tents at midnight, having been about twenty hours on foot.

"On the 13th, about 2 p.m., Mr. Thurstby and I started from the tents accompanied by two Kurds, carrying rugs, greatcoats, and a small supply of provisions. We proceeded slowly and leisurely until we reached about one-third the ascent of the cone. There we were obliged to dismiss the Kurds, who, from religious fear, refused either to proceed further or to spend the night on the mountain; but, to insure their return in the morning for the rugs, &c., we thought it expedient to detain their arms—the dearest possession of these nomade people.

"As we had neither of us much fancy to try the ascent by the snow, we chose a new line of our own over a rocky surface, facing nearly due south, which the wind and sun had bared nearly to the summit.

"Left now to ourselves, we selected a spot to pass the night, piled up stones to windward as a shelter against the cold, and having dined heartily, we made ourselves as comfortable as possible. We saw the sun set in indescribable glory, throwing the shadow of the vast mountain far away over Georgia and Aderbijan, and even darkening the distant haze of the Eastern horizon.

"Wrapping ourselves in our rugs, we passed the night as well as could be expected, and at peep of dawn on the 14th we resumed the ascent. It certainly was toilsome and slow, but was, nevertheless, satisfactory.

"From an elevation of about 14,000 feet above the sea we saw the sun rise in unclouded majesty, lighting up simultaneously to our view vast tracts of the Russian, Persian, and Turkish empires; that was a glorious sight never to be forgotten.

"About 1200 feet from the summit we came upon an oak cross that had been fixed there in the rock by Professor Abich in the year 1845; it was in perfect preservation, and the inscription, in Russian characters, was still legible.

"This was the most difficult part of our ascent, the obstructions were frequent, and the climbing at times perilous; but caution and perseverance enabled us to overcome everything, and at nine a.m. we had the satisfaction of standing on the highest point of the mountain. Here I stuck to the hilt in the snow a kama, or short double-edged sword, which we found at the foot of Abich's cross. Here also, as loyal Britons, we drank the health of our beloved Queen in brandy. Her Majesty will perhaps deign to accept this expression of allegiance on considering that hers is probably the first name that has been pronounced on that solemn height since it was quitted by the great patriarch of the human race; for no record or tradition exists of the ascent having ever been made before, although repeatedly tried by men of different countries, both European and Asiatic. Professor Abich made several attempts, but failed in all, as is proved by the position of the cross, by the testimony of the natives, and even by the confession of his own countrymen.

"We descended on the tracks of the others, and got back to the tents about four p.m.

"The whole surface of Mount Ararat bears evidence of having been subjected to violent volcanic action, being seamed and scored with deep ravines. The rocky ridges that protrude from the



snow are either basalt or tufa; and near the summit we found some bits of pumice on a spot which still emits a strong sulphurous smell.

"The summit itself is nearly level, of a triangular shape, the base being about 200 yards in length, the perpendicular about 300.

"The highest point is at the apex of the triangle, which points nearly due west; separated from it by a hollow is another point of nearly equal altitude, and the base of the triangle is an elevated ridge, forming a third eminence. These three points stand out in distinct relief on a clear day.

"The snow on the top is almost as dry as powder, and in walking over it we did not sink more than half-way to the knee. The impression left on my mind is, that the summit is an extinct crater filled with snow. We experienced no difficulty of respiration, except being sooner blown by exertion than we should have been at a lower level. The cold was intense; and though a perfect calm prevailed at the time at the foot of the cone, as we afterwards learnt, a keen wind was blowing from the west, which raised a blinding mist of fine snow that prevented us taking any distant views.

"As may be supposed, our success has created no small sensation throughout the country; the fame of it preceded us wherever we went. It was announced as a sort of wonder to the caravans travelling eastward; and the Kaimakam of Bayazid has made it the subject of a special report to Constantinople.

"From the sacred character of the mountain, and the traditions associated with it throughout the East, identical as they are with scriptural records, I am inclined to think that a degree of importance will attach to this performance, in popular estimation, beyond what is due to a mere exhibition of nerve or muscle, and this, no doubt, will tell in favour of our national prestige.

"On the 15th we ascended Lesser Ararat, but this being an ordinary affair does not call for a detailed account. I would only observe that, perhaps, from no other spot in the world can a finer or more extensive view be obtained. This view we had the good fortune to enjoy to perfection, with a cloudless sky and clear atmosphere.

"To save your readers the trouble of referring to a gazetteer, I may state that the summit of Greater Ararat is 17,323 feet above sea level, and 14,300 above the plain: from base of cone to summit may be above 6,000 feet.

"Lesser Ararat is 13,093 feet above sea level.

"ROBERT STUART, Major,  
Special Service, Asia Minor.

"Erzeroum, July 26."  
Professor Parrot and his friend seem to have encountered difficulties similar to those experienced by this party of Englishmen. It was only after two unsuccessful attempts that the ascent was accomplished. On the first occasion, Sept. 12th (o.s.), 1829, they reached the height of 15,666 feet, equal to that of Mont Blanc, but the day was too far advanced to continue the attempt. The adventurers were therefore compelled to content themselves with the thought that the summit plainly was accessible, and to return:—

"In descending," continues the narrative of Parrot, "we met with a danger we had not anticipated; for if in the descent of every mountain you tread less firmly than in the going up, it is still more difficult to tread firmly when you look down upon such a surface of ice and snow as that over which we had to travel, and where, if we slipped and fell, there was nothing to stop us but the sharp-pointed masses of stone in which the region of eternal ice loses itself. My young friend, whose courage had probably been proof against severer trials, lost his presence of mind here; his foot slipped, and he fell; but as he was about twenty paces behind me, I had time to thrust my pole firmly into the ice, to take a sure footing in my capital snow-shoes, and, while I held the pole in my right hand, to catch him in passing with my left. My position was well chosen, but the straps which fastened my ice-shoes broke, and, instead of being able to stop my friend, I was

carried with him in his fall. He was so fortunate as to be stopped by some stones, but I rolled on for about 1700 feet, till I reached some fragments of lava, near the lower glacier. The tube of my barometer was dashed to pieces, my chronometer burst open, and everything had fallen out of my pockets, but I escaped without severe injury. As soon as we had recovered from our fright, we collected the most important of our effects, and continued our journey downwards."

A second attempt was also unsuccessful, but, on the 25th of September, their toils were rewarded. Perceiving that everything depended on passing the night as near to the boundary line as possible, a strong party of guides was procured to carry tents and stores, and the bivouac was made nearly 14,000 feet above the sea level.

"At daybreak we arose, and began our journey at half-past six. We crossed the last broken declivities in half-an-hour, and entered the boundary of eternal snow nearly at the same place as in our preceding ascent. In consequence of changes in the temperature of the weather, the new-fallen snow, which had facilitated our progress on our previous ascent, had melted away, and again frozen; so that, in spite of the still inconsiderable slope, we were compelled to cut steps in the ice. This very much embarrassed our advance, and added greatly to our fatigue. One of the peasants had remained behind in our resting-place, as he felt unwell; two others became exhausted in ascending the side of the glacier. They at first lay down, but soon retreated to our night-quarters. Without being disheartened by these difficulties, we proceeded, and soon reached a great cleft which marks the upper edge of the declivity of the large glacier, and at ten o'clock we arrived at the great plain of snow, which indicates the first break on the icy head of Ararat. At the distance of a thousand paces or so, we saw the cross which we had reared on the 19th of September (second attempt); but it appeared to me so extremely small, probably on account of its black colour, that I almost doubted whether I should be able to perceive it again with an ordinary telescope from the plain of the Araxes. In the direction towards the summit, a shorter, but at the same time a steeper declivity than the one we had passed now lay before us; and between this and the extreme summit there appeared to be only one small hill. After a short repose, we passed the first precipice, which was the steepest of all, by hewing out steps in the rocks; and, after this, the next elevation. But here, instead of seeing the ultimate goal of all our difficulties, immediately before us appeared a series of small hills, which even concealed the summit from our sight. This rather abated our courage, which had never yielded for a moment so long as we had all our difficulties in view; and our strength, exhausted by the labour of hewing the ice, seemed scarcely commensurate with the attainment of the now invisible object of our wishes. But a review of what had already been accomplished, and of that which might still remain to be done, the proximity of the series of projecting elevations, and a glance at my brave companions, banished my fears, and we boldly advanced. We crossed two more hills, and the cold breeze of the summit blew toward us. I stepped from behind one of the glaciers, and the extreme cone of Ararat lay distinctly before my enraptured eyes. Only one other icy plain was to be ascended, and at a quarter past three, on the 27th of September, o.s. 1829, we stood on the summit of Mount Ararat!"

#### GOSSIP OF THE WEEK.

The remains of Dr. Buckland were deposited on Friday week, in a most characteristic resting-place, in the solid rock below Islip. The rock was blasted and the body was interred in a cavity lined with Portland cement to keep out the water. He has left by his will all the curious contents of his museum at Oxford to the University.

An addition of great interest to ornithologists

has been this week made, through the liberality of Her Majesty, to the collection of birds in the Zoological Gardens. A large and brilliantly-coloured species of turkey (*Meleagris ocellata*) has been known for many years to inhabit the vicinity of Lake Peten, near the confines of the provinces of Vera Paz and Belize, Central America; but so rare is even the skin of the bird in this country, that a stuffed specimen is valued by dealers at about forty guineas. The late Earl of Derby, who was most zealous in his endeavours to improve the breeds of birds likely to be serviceable for food, went to the expense of sending collectors out to Honduras, almost solely with the view of procuring living specimens of this turkey for his aviary at Knowsley. For nearly twenty years his lordship looked forward to the gratification of possessing the species, but all attempts to bring it alive to England failed. This, we are happy to announce, has at length been accomplished by Mr. Skinner, the well-known collector of orchideous plants of Guatemala, assisted by Captain Wilson, of the West India mail packet *Parana*. Mrs. Stevenson, the lady of H. M. Superintendent of Belize, possessed a fine cock ocellated turkey and two hens, which she was desirous of presenting to the Queen, and Mr. Skinner undertook the delicate task of bringing them to England. By feeding them with great care by hand during the voyage, and constantly bathing the head to relieve the eyes of a mucous discharge, and through being furnished, thanks to Captain Wilson, with plenty of room and air, the turkeys reached England on Monday last in tolerable health. Immediately on their arrival being communicated to the Queen, Her Majesty commanded them to be presented, for the gratification of the public, to the Zoological Society; and they may be seen in the aviary, on the left of the entrance to the Gardens, near the pelicans and flamingoes. They are taller, thinner, and more erect than the common turkey, with the plumage marked with iridescent peacock-like eyes, the legs being pink, and the head of a peculiar soft clear grey-blue, crested with clear bright orange warts.

At the meeting of the British Association, at Cheltenham, Sir Roderick Murchison referred in very feeling terms to the discovery of the remains of the Franklin Expedition reported by Dr. Rae, and said that this formed an adequate ground for sending an expedition to clear up the mystery that remained as to the fate of Franklin and his companions. There are some who still maintain the possibility of some of the men surviving, but, at all events, the recovery of Sir John Franklin's papers, or of other memorials of his proceedings, is rendered probable, now that the field on which the search has to be made is limited and comparatively easy of access. The matter has been brought before the Admiralty, and it is said that H.M. steamer *Phoenix* is to be fitted out for this expedition.

The antiquarians continue to hold their provincial meetings, as is their custom at this season. That of the British Archaeological Association commenced at Bridgewater, and the members, after inspecting most of the archaeological curiosities of that old historical town, and visiting Glastonbury Abbey and Wells Cathedral, migrated in the latter part of the week to Bath, where the proceedings are to be brought to a close this evening. The house in which Admiral Blake is said to have been born is among the objects of historical interest at Bridgewater. The day at Wells Cathedral, with the Bishop's Palace, the Vicar's Close or college, and other associated buildings, afforded a rich treat to the archaeologists. Lectures were delivered on the different days on the objects under inspection, but no attempt was made to collect into a temporary museum some of the portable antiquarian treasures and curiosities of the district.

The Cambrian archaeologists commenced their annual meeting at Welshpool, on Monday. Some pleasant excursions were made, and many instructive papers were read. One of these, of unusual historical interest, was by the Venerable Archdeacon Williams, 'On Early Celtic Coins,' treating of the metallic currency of the island previous to the



Roman invasion, connecting the subject with the numismatic history of the Phœnicians, Greeks, Romans, and Gauls. Earl Powis, the President of the Association, on Wednesday received the members at Powis Castle, where entertainment was provided for the archaeological as well as the less scientific appetites of the guests. An excellent local museum at Welshpool brought together a great variety of Celtic and Cambrian antiquities. The meeting for 1857 is fixed at Monmouth.

A complete series of the Greek and Latin Classics, with English notes, is a literary undertaking which we hope will be successfully carried out. There is at present no uniform series of the works now announced for publication in the prospectus of Mr. Bentley. Several of the authors have of late years met with learned and able editors, but these labours have been independently made, and without the unity of plan and utility of purpose now contemplated. The object in Mr. Bentley's series is to supply books adapted for schools, universities, or private students, at a cost greatly below any that now exists, and in a style which can only be justified by the largeness of the list of subscribers. The series will comprise, according to the present computation, about eighty volumes, forty-four Greek, and thirty-six Latin; the authors in the former, not later than the time of Alexander, except in the case of Theocritus, Bion, and Moschus, nor except in the case of Juvenal, Persius, Pliny, and Martial, below the Augustan age of Rome. The general superintendence of the work is in the hands of Mr. C. D. Yonge, author of the 'English-Greek Lexicon,' and many useful educational volumes. Of the works already announced as in preparation, Mr. Yonge undertakes Homer (four vols.) and Horace (one). Sophocles (two) will be edited by Dr. Kennedy, Head Master of Shrewsbury School; Lucræti (one) and Plautus (three) by Mr. Bode, author of 'Ballads from Herodotus'; and others of the series are in equally able hands. From what we have seen of the plan of the work, and know of those engaged upon it, we have every expectation that it will be a credit to English scholarship, and certainly no uniform series of the classics of the same excellence has before been provided for ordinary school use.

The subjects that are to come under the notice of the International Philanthropic Congress at Brussels next month belong to almost every department of social life. Food, clothing, houses, furniture for the working classes, cultivation, production, drainage, cattle breeding, model farms, and museums for the agriculturists; regulation of markets, weights, measures, coins for commerce; the principles of taxation, of association, of insurance; the adulteration of food; the improvement of hand labour; the diminishing the risk and unhealthiness of certain occupations; the prevention of accidents; the ventilation of rooms; the consumption of smoke—these and a multitude of other topics are presented for discussion. To facilitate the proceedings of the philanthropic parliament, or speaking-house, the Congress is to be divided into three sections, the business of the second of which we copy verbatim from the official programme. "SECTION 2.—The supply of provisions viewed in relation to political economy and philanthropy. This embraces the consideration of free trade in food and all necessities, and the means of lessening those taxes which have a tendency to raise the prices of these commodities. The best method of arranging markets, the regulation of weights, measures, and coinage, and the establishment of a strict supervision over articles of food, for the prevention of their sale in an unwholesome state, will come under discussion. The advantages of the spread of sound doctrines of political economy, and the publication of correct trade statistics, will also be noticed. The judicious encouragement of importation, with special reference to the large quantities of cattle in America and other countries, the extension of fisheries, and the occasional purchase by the government of foreign produce for the supply of the army and other public establishments, so as to avoid producing a scarcity in the

home markets; the checking the distillation of alimentary substances, both as diminishing the supply of food, and as promoting drunkenness and crime; savings' banks, benefit societies, and other institutions for promoting the encouragement of habits of prudence and foresight among the working classes; the regulation of emigration, and the possibility of establishing a permanent commission in each country to follow up the purposes of the Congress—these and other kindred subjects will form the business of this section." Section three has a list of topics about three times the length of the foregoing extract. The range of subjects is wide enough, from the moral principles of prudence and virtue down to the mechanical arts of baking a loaf and fitting a window. Of the hundred questions of economic science put down for discussion, any one might occupy the whole time of the Congress during its session. The really practical business of the meeting seems to be included in the following appendix of four points. "1. The establishment of international correspondence on the principles laid down at the Philanthropic Congress at Paris. 2. The publication of a periodical notice of the various works and documents which refer to the proposed objects. 3. The establishment, in different countries, of a Permanent Economic Museum. 4. The arrangement of the time and place for their next meeting."

In the account of Her Majesty's journey to Scotland, we read that "Mr. Edwards, the Electric Telegraph Company's superintendent on the line, accompanied the train with the usual telegraphic apparatus, with which, in the event of any accident or detention between two stations, he would be enabled almost instantly to communicate the circumstances to the nearest station by simply connecting the portable voltaic battery he carries with him with an ordinary electric wire on the line. To afford additional security, the royal carriages were provided with the usual cord communication from the last break-van to the tender, and a look-out man was stationed on the tender, who kept his face towards the rear of the train, in order to observe any signal that might be given by the semaphore on the roof of the royal saloon, or by any of the guards or other attendants accompanying the train." Other precautions are described as having been taken against every possible casualty. If such security could be provided for this particular trip, there is no reason why similar precautions should not be taken in regard to every passenger train. Nothing but the expense prevents similar arrangements from being made. Juries will do well to remember the account of the Queen's journey to Scotland, in assessing future damages on any railway lines.

Another appeal for public aid has appeared in behalf of the Marylebone Free Library, the only institution of the class in the metropolis, with its millions of inhabitants. The announcement seems to show that there is something wrong in the principles on which these libraries are attempted to be established. They ought to be self-supporting instead of depending on charitable or philanthropic subscriptions. The working men, for whose benefit they are intended, would prize the privilege of these libraries far more if a small charge were made, instead of their being entirely free. Even though the fees were almost nominal, the feeling of independence would not be touched, as it certainly is under the present system.

The extinction of the Earldom of Shrewsbury, and the disputed succession to the estates connected with that title, suggest many historical recollections; and foremost amongst them the lines of Shakespeare:—

"Valiant Lord Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury,  
Created for his rare success in arms,  
Great Earl of Washford, Waterford, and Valence,  
Lord Talbot of Goodric and Urchingfield,  
Lord Strange of Blackmere, Lord Verdon of Alton,  
Lord Cromwell of Wingfield, Lord Furnival of Sheffield,  
The thrice victorious Lord of Falconbridge,  
Knight of the noble order of St. George,  
Worthy St. Michael, and the Golden Fleece,  
Great Marshal to Henry the Sixth,  
Of all his wars within the realm of France."

The Directors of the Crystal Palace Company have resolved to make their library and reading-room open to visitors free of charge, instead of on payment of a small fee as hitherto. The arrangements have been extended and improved, and the library will now prove an additional attraction to the people's palace at Sydenham.

A Post Office circular announces that after the 1st of September the book-post rate will include printed letters, as well as other printed matter.

Mr. J. E. Cairnes, M.A., has been elected Whately Professor of Political Economy in Trinity College, Dublin.

At the meeting of the Paris Academy of Sciences on the 18th, the President, M. Geoffroy St. Hilaire, communicated the information that a "very notable" improvement had taken place in the health of M. Regnault, whose accident was recorded in our last. The patient had recovered his consciousness, and held conversations with his friends. At the same sitting the death of M. Constant Prévost was announced. A communication was read from M. Coulvier-Gravier, on the periodical shooting stars of the month of August. The observations were commenced on the 6th of July, and ended on the 14th of the present month; but it was only on the 7th and 8th of August that they had any special interest. "As is always the case," says M. C.-G. "the number of shooting stars increased up to the 10th August—to diminish afterwards. In fifty-seven hours we observed 1324 shooting stars, among which sixteen were globes or bolides, and fifteen were accompanied by a train. Nearly two-thirds—808 of the number, were observed in eighteen hours only, during the four nights from the 7th to 11th." The hourly number seen is slightly in advance of last year, so slight that M. C.-G. considers it stationary, and looks forward to next and the following years to determine whether the number increases or diminishes. Since 1848 there has been a gradual diminution. On the same subject M. Le Verrier stated that observations had been made on the nights of the 9th and 10th at the Observatory, with a view to determine the parallax of the shooting stars or their distance from the earth. It is a question beset with difficulties, but from a few coincidences hopes are entertained of ultimate success.

A discovery of archaeological interest has just been made on the island of Gothland. It consists, first, of a quantity of clay beads of various colours, and fragments of buckles, which were found in turning up the earth for agricultural purposes, at Barkarve in Oeja; and, secondly, in a large collection of Anglo-Saxon coins, at Ragakra in Hejde, and amongst them two pieces of Swedish money of the time of Oluf, a king of Sweden who lived in the eleventh century. Amongst the coins were found funeral ornaments. They are all of silver, and mixed up with mouldering bones from human skeletons.

A grand celebration has just been held in Leipsic, of the jubilee in honour of the fiftieth anniversary of the establishment of the house of Brockhaus, booksellers and publishers. In commemoration of the event, Henry Brockhaus, the head of the firm, has presented a thousand dollars to the Schiller foundation, and a thousand dollars to the Institution for Decayed Booksellers in Dresden. It is intended to publish an account of the life and times of the first Brockhaus, the founder of the house, and from his constant and intimate association with all the learned men of Germany of his day, it is confidently expected that this biography will contain much matter interesting equally to the trade and the public.

A new periodical is announced to appear in Berlin, edited by Wachenbusen, entitled the 'Illustrated Monday's News'; it is to be published at the office of the 'Kladderatsch,' the German Punch, and is most probably only a branch of the same clever but rather coarse paper.

At the late meeting of the Scandinavian publishers and booksellers, which took place at Copenhagen, there were, besides Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians, three Finnish booksellers present, members of the union.

## FINE ARTS.

## CRYSTAL PALACE GALLERY.

WHILST every annual gallery in London is closed, and artists and amateurs alike are studying new effects of costume and scenery on every conceivable spot of foreign soil from Spain to Russia, an exhibition, which bids fair to rival Suffolk-street and Pall-Mall, is open and crowded with visitors at Sydenham. Few indeed of the pictures are of the first class—not a few of the lowest—never were the good offices of selection and purgation more needed; but this rapid though rank growth promises a vigorous future. The peculiarity of the collection is its universality. New Orleans and Philadelphia contribute, along with Belgium and Prussia. We find all the changes of style and varieties of motive which, when abundantly and amply displayed, were the principal interest of the French Exposition of 1855. Where the basis of a collection like this at the Crystal Palace is so broad, we cannot wonder that the superstructure is not yet magnificent. Time and experience must extend and develop these earlier efforts.

The collection occupies six rooms, besides the upper chamber, which is on a level with the floor of the building. Of this ante-room, though it is filled with pictures chiefly in water colours, the general impression can be only of one kind. Only a few examples occur to leaven the painful mediocrity of the general mass. Two of Frederick Taylor's vigorous and correct drawings, and a few good miniatures and enamels, are almost the only source of relief to the weary eye. Below, however, matters are different. The first of the six rooms contains some striking works. One that attracts general attention is M. Louis Felix Leullier's elaborate composition, representing the *Massacre of the Christians in the Amphitheatre under the Emperor Domitian*. It is indeed difficult to say whether such a scene is a legitimate subject of pictorial art. A description of these intense and extreme horrors would be intolerable in literature. We confess they are scarcely endurable upon canvas. An exhibition of brute force triumphing over humanity in its saintliest forms, of human shambles, full of blood and death, of a ferocious multitude giving loose to the most hideous passion, feasting their wolfish eyes with the groans and agonies of their fellows—this is frightfully repulsive. But it has yet a horrible fascination: it is a true lesson of history: it points an irresistible moral, it conveys a powerful warning. Let us accept it, then, in spite of its atrocities, and turning for a moment from the sentiments inspired by the subject to its execution, acknowledge the skill of construction and the power of execution which distinguish the work.

M. Linnig, a Belgian artist, and native of Antwerp, contributes a scene representing *A Gipsy Telling a Soldier his Fortune*. This is graphically described and forcibly related. A strong light streams down upon the group from some central opening above. The earnestness of the group, the will of the performer, who really believes his own prophetic powers, the hot eagerness of the trooper, and engrossed attention of the rest, are given with the true dramatic feeling.

The large painting of *Chaucer reading the Legend of Eustace to Edward III. and his Court*, by Ford Madox Brown; and the admirable *Parting of Lord William Russell with his Wife*, by C. Lacy, are already known to the public. The *First Meeting of Alexander and Roxana*, by F. Cowie, appears to be a study for fresco, somewhat exaggerated in its main features. The group of *Edward I. presenting his Son at Caernarvon*, by J. P. Davis, is seen with difficulty, and the action, on the whole, appears to be crowded and confused. *Cupid pretending to be ill*, by the same artist, seems to promise much more, if it were not thrust aside into a corner where it is nearly invisible. This picture invites a closer attention, in spite of the refreshment stall and staircase, which interfere with the calm and leisurely contemplation of art.

Mr. Clint's *Scarborough*, from the British Artists,

an aspiring production, towering with rocks, and whirling with huge waves, is also in this room. A singular and characteristic portrait of *Shere Singh, King of Lahore*, is one of the curiosities rather than attractions of this part of the collection. The work is carefully executed by A. Schoefft. We also notice some good *Camelias*, by Louisa S. Rimer.

The second room contains a few important works. *The Presentation in the Temple* will show at once the merits and the shortcomings in art of the celebrated R. Westall, R.A. The hard, disagreeable outlines, the exaggerated drawing, the defective handling, show how much weakness and effeminacy was combined with knowledge, true feeling, and genuine aspiration after high art in the works of this master. His imperfect efforts were fulfilled by Sir Joshua.

*The Death of Eli*, by Bird, R.A., lent by the Duke of Sutherland, is an equally instructive work. An amazing number of figures have been treated with great attention: the main figure of Eli falling backwards is the central and leading incident, and the action is interesting, without the insipidity and formality of West. The colour is brown and dark, but without the richness of Tintoretto and the Venetians, in imitation of whom, we presume, these universal attempts at tone were derived and became so fashionable.

A work by M. Nicaise de Keyser, who is director of the Academy of Antwerp, demands attention. This group is in the style for which there is no demand and no school in England; and it appears to be a favourable instance of its kind. A taste for this class of works is seldom or ever to be found amongst us; but no one can refuse to acknowledge the skill of drawing and grouping on a large scale which this work exhibits. The spectator will be less disposed to acquiesce in the uniform colour, which deprives the subject of animation and gaiety. The subject is *Elizabeth of Hungary distributing Alms*.

*The Painter's Relaxation*, by A. Roëhn, is an interesting feature of this part of the gallery. The scene is in the age of Louis XIII. as to costume—of all time as to character. The painter's wife holds up an infant on her lap to meet the caress of the father. The arrangement is simple, the expression not very warm; but the execution is careful and beautiful, and suggestive of G. Douw. In all respects the handling of the artist is equal to the very various materials which he represents. The furniture of the apartment also has all the natural life-like appearance of an old Flemish interior. The work is priced at 160*l*.

*Rubens and Snuyders consulting about the Composition of a Picture*, by M. A. J. Verhoeven, a Belgian, is another noticeable work. The table is covered with game, fish, and animals, the subject of Snuyders' composition: the painters are in council, aided by the advice of a lady, who looks over Rubens' canvas. Several other ladies are present, who are doubtless about to appear in the forthcoming work. The light in this picture is dark, and not distributed with quite the success of De Hooghe, of whom, nevertheless, it reminds the spectator.

*A Young Family*, by F. Haseleer, is a much nearer approach to the last-mentioned painter, in the domestic elegance of the style, and in the clear and beautifully-diffused light.

An ambitious composition, by Baron Gustav Wappers, founded on the subject of King Solomon's Judgment, must not be omitted. The forms, however, though grand, are exaggerated, and the action forced and theatrical. The group almost resolves itself into a study of attitudes and anatomy.

*The Story-tellers*, a group, by M. J. C. Mertz, of Brussels, is painted in the forcible conversation style which is cultivated by the French with so much success. The red dress tells well in the group, which is else somewhat hard. Traces of French grafting upon an originally Dutch stock are apparent in this work.

*A Friendly Visit*, by Panivelli, is a picture of unmistakably foreign origin, treated with much

genial character, and well executed. The visitor is a young lady, who, sitting on the side of a bed from which her friend has not yet risen, is playing with a lap-dog. All is very natural and simple, though the treatment is striking and original.

The Comte de Montpezat is a large contributor. *A Cavalier*, temp. *Henri II.*, is a fine firmly-painted subject, though the action of the horse appears slightly cramped and wooden. *Hunting* is an elegant, courtly scene, highly touched with a sparkling, brilliant effect. There are others of the same class.

*Perhaps he will Catch it*, by M. Holtzapffel, of Paris, is thoroughly French in ingenuity, character, and execution. The plasterer's boy sitting on a swinging board, by the side of the wall of a house on which he is operating, sees a rose falling towards him, and stretches himself out to catch it. The idea must have been taken from actual observation. Who would have invented such an incident? The implied suggestion is clever and ingenious.

Mr. T. C. Frère's *Bazaar at Damascus* is in a style with which the French Exhibition in Pall-Mall has made us familiar. This picture was also in the Exposition.

M. Haussoulier's phantom picture, called *The Fountain of Youth*, is a strange phenomenon. Pale, lifeless figures, dressed (some of them undressed) in robes of broad masses of faint colour, like saints in Gothic windows, may serve as the materials out of which to suggest an allegory, but surely not in any way to represent living human beings. The attempt appears to have been to display these mystic beings clothed with their corporeal essences rather than bodies, the better to enable them to undergo the desired transformation.

We know not under what school to class J. Stellart's *Widow of Canosbri, Naples*, a fine impressive subject.

In English we need only enumerate, as the works are well known, D. Roberts's *Remains of a Temple, Upper Egypt*; E. W. Cooke's *Entrance of a Sea Port*; W. Dyce's *Joash Shooting the Arrow of Deliverance*; J. P. Knight's *Smugglers Alarmed*; Sant's *Mother and Child*, the engraved picture; J. F. Dicksee's *Gallop and Trot*, from a recent exhibition, and *Repose*, an excellent study of a sleeping child, satisfactory in every point except the hair, which is wiry; a *Landscape* by A. Gilbert; and W. Gale's *Griselda*, an example of mortification, perhaps rather amusing than edifying.

*A Windmill*, by H. Bright, deserves particular notice for its exquisite feeling for the picturesque, its shifting lights, varied colour, and poetic interpretation of a bit of sunshine and showers. The sentiment is unmistakable, but the execution somewhat sketchy.

*The Captive*, by J. Robertson, of Philadelphia, is a specimen of American art, interesting as a study of the tastes of our Transatlantic cousins.

The third apartment is very largely occupied by English works. *The Dream of Parisina*, by A. Gastaldi, of Turin, is an exception. The force of this work is indisputable, and the Italian character of the passions displayed not the least remarkable feature. It is on a large scale, and of the utmost vigour of drawing and composition. This was also one of the French Exhibition pictures.

Preeminent among the English works is *The Forester's Daughter*, by Sir E. Landseer, the property of the King of the Belgians. Anthony's *Beckes and Ferns*; David Roberts's *Thebes, the Great Hall*; Pickersgill's *Lady in Modern Greek Costume*; Elmore's clever picture of *Mrs. Pepp sitting for her Portrait*; Leslie's *Sancho Panza and Dr. Pedro Rezio*, the charming academy picture of 1855; J. P. Pettitt's *Opening of the Seventh Seal*, from which the engraving has been made; an elegant head, *Reflection*, by J. Noble; a *Girl's Head*, by Inskip; W. Gale's *Imogen and Iachimo*, of this year, and Frost's *Sea Cure*, which was also in the Exposition.

Among those less familiar are Desanges' *Excommunication of King Robert of France and Queen Bertha*; a clever picture representing the *Dawn of Day*, an icy cold scene in a high moor-



land district, with a herd of deer rousing themselves, by J. H. Dell; two small and careful landscape studies in Wales, by P. Deakin, and *Kil's Writing Lesson*, which attracts and amuses every visitor, by R. B. Martineau. *Kean as Louis XI.*, by H. W. Phillips, is characteristic, but not flattering.

Mr. E. Hopley's water-colour drawing of *Phenicia and Laura*, from "Gil Blas," is a clever specimen of the style; Miss Martin's flowers and Mr. Key's animals are still excellent.

The director of one of the first and most renowned private picture galleries in Vienna has been arrested on a charge of having purloined whole portfolios of very valuable engravings, and substituted inferior and comparatively worthless copies for many rare paintings. The extent of these depredations will only be made public on his trial. He has only held this post a year and a half, and, as may naturally be supposed, these robberies, so cleverly imagined and so rapidly executed, have caused a great sensation in the artistic world of Austria.

The monument to the philosopher Schelling, which originated in the desire of the King of Bavaria to do honour to one of the great German writers, has been exhibited to the public during the last few days, in the "atelier" of Herr Hauser, a sculptor and architect. It is from a design of Ziehlens, and executed in white Tyrolian marble. It is a fine work, worthy alike of the philosopher and his royal patron. A Grecian temple, within which is placed the bust of Schelling, rests on a richly ornamented entablature, which is supported by two caryatides; between these figures is a marble slab, on which a bas-relief is carved, representing the philosopher surrounded by his scholars; many of the faces are portraits, and amongst them that of King Maximilian himself. Under the bas-relief is the following inscription, "Dem ersten Denker Deutschlands, Friedrich Wilhelm Joseph von Schelling, Geheimrath und Professor der Philosophie," (To the greatest thinker in Germany, Frederick William Joseph von Schelling, a Privy Councillor and Professor of Philosophy). There is also a further inscription announcing that "His Majesty, King Maximilian II. of Bavaria, erected this memorial to his beloved teacher." The days of his birth and death are engraved on a marble tablet held by the caryatides. He was born at Lemberg in Wurtemberg, on the 27th January, 1775, and died on the 20th August, 1854, at Ragaz, in the cemetery of which latter place the monument is to be erected.

The Glyptothek, certainly the greatest work which Louis, the ex-king of Bavaria, conceived and carried into effect, is adorned at the entrance, both to the right and left, with beautifully executed statues, six in number, personifications of art amongst the ancients, those of Vulcan, Prometheus, and Dædalus representing the mythic, whilst that of Phidias stands for the chief of the historic masters in the plastic art, and those of Pericles and Hadrian as the great promoters and patronisers of art amongst the Greeks and Romans. There still remain on the east and west sides twelve vacant niches, and it is the king's intention to have statues placed on them as soon as they can be completed; the sculptor Lossow has been ordered to execute a portrait statue of Thorwaldsen from the great master's own design; and Max Widemann of Berlin has already finished models for those of Canova and Rauch. The artists were ordered to adopt the ancient costume, and the result is that the toga with its ample folds shows off in great perfection the large and well-formed figure of Rauch, and the more slender form of Canova is gracefully draped with a light tunic, bound with a girdle at the waist, and descending to the knee in full folds; a cloak thrown across one shoulder covers the back and left arm, leaving the body and breast free.

Moritz von Schwind, whose name is now so intimately associated with the castle of the Wartburg and the holy Elizabeth, has just finished an oil painting of a scene from the life of the pious prin-

cess for the Grand Duchess of Weimar; the work is spoken of by critics as full of beauty of design and finish of execution.

The 'Patrie' of Bruges announces that Genisson, celebrated for his architectural pictures, has just received an order from the government for a large picture descriptive of the magnificent ceremony in the Joseph-square, in Brussels, at the moment of celebrating the "Te Deum."

## MUSIC AND THE DRAMA.

THE Bradford Festival has been the musical event of the week. The performance of Mr. Costa's *Eli* is reported to have given the highest satisfaction, as might have been expected when the composer himself presided over the well-trained orchestra, and when the chief solo parts were sustained by Madame Viardot, Madame Clara Novello, Herr Fornes, and Mr. Sims Reeves. The performance of Handel's *Messiah* and Mendelssohn's *Elijah*, we also hear, were of the highest order. Miss F. Huddart and Miss Sherrington shared on these occasions the honours bestowed on the vocalists who have hitherto taken the chief place at these provincial festivals. The only novelty of the meeting was a cantata, by Mr. J. L. Hatton, on the theme of *Robin Hood*, with some good quartettes and concerted music.

Mr. Kean, in his closing address last Friday evening, announced the revival of Sheridan's *Pizarro*, on Monday, September 1, "with the same attention to detail which has accompanied the whole of the previous series of historical illustrations."

The death of M. Baumann, the prince of bassoon players, will prove a great loss to the Philharmonic Society and the band of the Royal Italian Opera, as well as to the musical profession at large. His skill was unrivalled in the management of the instrument with which his professional fame is associated. M. Baumann was also much esteemed in private life.

Rossini's *William Tell*, after being performed for years with important omissions, has within the last few days been produced at the Grand Opera at Paris, exactly as he wrote it. This has caused great delight to the fanatical admirers of the distinguished composer, but the majority of the public, according to our letters, appear to be of opinion that the opera is now much too long and a little wearisome.

Some of the Paris papers once again assert that Meyerbeer's great opera, the *Africaine*, which he has had in preparation for years, is to be produced in the course of the winter at the Grand Opera; but we have reason to believe that they are mistaken. It is very probable, however, that the distinguished composer will bring out, towards the middle of the approaching season, a new comic opera at the Opéra Comique.

The adventures of Queen Mary Stuart have once again been made the subject of a melodrama in Paris. The piece is in five acts and twelve tableaux, and has been performed at the Cirque Impérial. It presents nothing remarkable. The Palais Royal, in the same city, has produced one of those astounding farces for which it is celebrated, and which no other theatre in the world is capable of imitating. It bears the grotesque title of *La Queue du Poêle*, and is acted by the inimitable troupe with a farcical extravagance that is really extraordinary to witness.

The death of Robert Schumann, the celebrated musical composer, we mentioned last week, and now we have to announce the decease of Staudigl, the well-known bass singer. He was attacked with madness in the spring, partially recovered, again relapsed, and has been finally released by death from his appalling malady.

Brunswick papers announce the death of Madame Otto Werthall, one of the first dramatic artists of the day in Germany. She was attached to the theatre at Hanover, and was spending the vacation with her husband in Brunswick.

## LEARNED SOCIETIES.

BRITISH ASSOCIATION. — Mr. H. Bessemer (Section G) 'On the Manufacture of Malleable Iron and Steel without Fuel.' The manufacture of iron in this country has attained such an important position that any improvement in this branch of our national industry cannot fail to be a source of general interest, and will, I trust, be a sufficient excuse for the present brief, and, I fear, imperfect paper. I may mention that for the last two years my attention has been almost exclusively directed to the manufacture of malleable iron and steel, in which, however, I had made but little progress until within the last eight or nine months. The constant pulling down and rebuilding of furnaces, and the toil of daily experiments with large charges of iron, had already begun to exhaust my stock of patience; but the numerous observations I had made during this very unpromising period all tended to confirm an entirely new view of the subject, which at that time forced itself upon my attention—viz., that I could produce a much more intense heat without any furnace or fuel than could be obtained by either of the modifications I had used, and consequently that I should not only avoid the injurious action of mineral fuel on the iron under operation, but that I should at the same time avoid also the expense of the fuel. Some preliminary trials were made on from 10lb. to 20lb. of iron, and, although the process was fraught with considerable difficulty, it exhibited such unmistakable signs of success as to induce me at once to put up an apparatus capable of converting about 7 cwt. of crude pig iron into malleable iron in thirty minutes. With such masses of metal to operate on, the difficulties which beset the small laboratory experiments of 10lb. entirely disappeared. On this new field of inquiry I set out with the assumption that crude iron contains about five per cent. of carbon; that carbon cannot exist at a white heat in the presence of oxygen without uniting therewith and producing combustion; that such combustion would proceed with a rapidity dependent on the amount of surface of carbon exposed; and, lastly, that the temperature which the metal would acquire would be also dependent on the rapidity with which the oxygen and carbon were made to combine, and consequently that it was only necessary to bring the oxygen and carbon together in such a manner that a vast surface should be exposed to their mutual action, in order to produce a temperature hitherto unattainable in our largest furnaces. With a view of testing practically this theory, I constructed a cylindrical vessel of three feet in diameter and five feet in height, somewhat like an ordinary cupola furnace, the interior of which is lined with fire bricks, and at about two inches from the bottom of it I insert five tuyère pipes, the nozzles of which are formed of well-burned fire clay, the orifice of each tuyère being about three-eighths of an inch in diameter; they are so put into the brick lining (from the outer side) as to admit of their removal and renewal in a few minutes when they are worn out. At one side of the vessel, about half way up from the bottom, there is a hole made for running in the crude metal, and on the opposite side there is a tap-hole stopped with loam, by means of which the iron is run out at the end of the process. In practice this converting vessel may be made of any convenient size, but I prefer that it should not hold less than one, or more than five tons, of fluid iron at each charge. The vessel should be placed so near to the discharge hole of the blast furnace as to allow the iron to flow along a gutter into it; a small blast cylinder will be required, capable of compressing air to about 8lb. or 10lb. to the square inch. A communication having been made between it and the tuyères before named, the converting vessel will be in a condition to commence work; it will, however, on the occasion of its first being used after filling with firebricks be necessary to make a fire in the interior with a few baskets of coke, so as to dry the brickwork and heat up the vessel for the first operation, after which the fire is to be all carefully raked out at the tapping hole,

which is again to be made good with loam. The vessel will then be in readiness to commence work, and may be so continued without any use of fuel until the brick lining in the course of time becomes worn away and a new lining is required. I have before mentioned that the tuyères are situated nearly close to the bottom of the vessel; the fluid metal will therefore rise some eighteen inches or two feet above them. It is therefore necessary, in order to prevent the metal from entering the tuyère holes, to turn on the blast before allowing the fluid crude iron to run into the vessel from the blast furnace. This having been done, and the fluid iron run in, a rapid boiling up of the metal will be heard going on within the vessel, the metal being tossed violently about and dashed from side to side, shaking the vessel by the force with which it moves, from the throat of the converting vessel. Flame will then immediately issue, accompanied by a few bright sparks. This state of things will continue for about fifteen or twenty minutes, during which time the oxygen in the atmospheric air combines with the carbon contained in the iron, producing carbonic acid gas, and at the same time evolving a powerful heat. Now, as this heat is generated in the interior of, and is diffusive in innumerable fiery bubbles through, the whole fluid mass, the metal absorbs the greater part of it, and its temperature becomes immensely increased, and by the expiration of the fifteen or twenty minutes before named that part of the carbon which appears mechanically mixed and diffused through the crude iron has been entirely consumed. The temperature, however, is so high that the chymically combined carbon now begins to separate from the metal, as is at once indicated by an immense increase in the volume of flame rushing out of the throat of the vessel. The metal in the vessel now rises several inches above its natural level, and a light frothy slag makes its appearance, and is thrown out in large foam-like masses. This violent eruption of cinder generally lasts about five or six minutes, when all further appearance of it ceases, a steady and powerful flame replacing the shower of sparks and cinder which always accompanies the boil. The rapid union of carbon and oxygen which thus takes place adds still further to the temperature of the metal, while the diminished quantity of carbon present allows a part of the oxygen to combine with the iron, which undergoes combustion and is converted into an oxide. At the excessive temperature that the metal has now acquired the oxide as soon as formed undergoes fusion, and forms a powerful solvent of those earthy bases that are associated with the iron. The violent ebullition which is going on mixes most intimately the scoria and metal, every part of which is thus brought in contact with the fluid oxide, which will thus wash and cleanse the metal most thoroughly from the silica and other earthy bases which are combined with the crude iron, while the sulphur and other volatile matters which cling so tenaciously to iron at ordinary temperatures are driven off, the sulphur combining with the oxygen and forming sulphurous acid gas. The loss in weight of crude iron during its conversion into an ingot of malleable iron was found on a mean of four experiments to be twelve and a half per cent., to which will have to be added the loss of metal in the finishing rolls. This will make the entire loss probably not less than eighteen per cent., instead of about twenty-eight per cent., which is the loss on the present system. A large portion of this metal is, however, recoverable by treating with carbonaceous gases the rich oxides thrown out of the furnace during the boil. These slags are found to contain innumerable small grains of metallic iron, which are mechanically held in suspension in the slags, and may be easily recovered. I have before mentioned that after the boil has taken place a steady and powerful flame succeeds, which continues without any change for about ten minutes, when it rapidly falls off. As soon as this diminution of flame is apparent the workman will know that the process is completed, and that the crude iron has been converted into pure malleable iron, which he will form into ingots of any suitable size and shape by simply opening the tap-hole of

the converting vessel and allowing the fluid malleable iron to flow into the iron ingot moulds placed there to receive it. The masses of iron thus formed will be perfectly free from any admixture of cinder, oxide, or other extraneous matters, and will be far more pure and in a forwarder state of manufacture than a pile formed of ordinary puddle bars. And thus it will be seen that by a single process, requiring no manipulation or particular skill, and with only one workman, from three to five tons of crude iron passes into the condition of several piles of malleable iron in from thirty to thirty-five minutes, with the expenditure of about one-third part the blast now used in a finery furnace with an equal charge of iron, and with the consumption of no other fuel than is contained in the crude iron. To those who are best acquainted with the nature of fluid iron, it may be a matter of surprise that a blast of cold air forced into melted crude iron is capable of raising its temperature to such a degree as to retain it in a perfect state of fluidity after it has lost all its carbon, and is in the condition of malleable iron, which in the highest heat of our forges only becomes softened into a pasty mass. But such is the excessive temperature that I am enabled to arrive at with a properly shaped converting vessel and a judicious distribution of the blast, that I am enabled not only to retain the fluidity of the metal, but to create so much surplus heat as to re-melt the crop ends, ingot runners, and other scrap that is made throughout the process, and thus bring them without labour or fuel into ingots of a quality equal to the rest of the charge of new metal. For this purpose a small arched chamber is formed immediately over the throat of the converting vessel, somewhat like the tunnel head of the blast furnace. This chamber has two or more openings on the sides of it, and its floor is made to slope downwards to the throat. As soon as a charge of fluid malleable iron has been drawn off from the connecting vessel, the workman will take the scrap intended to be worked into the next charge, and proceed to introduce the several pieces into the small chamber, piling them up around the opening of the throat. When this is done he will run in his charge of crude metal, and again commence the process. By the time the boil commences the bar ends or other scrap will have acquired a white heat, and by the time it is over most of them will have been melted and run down into the charge. Any pieces, however, that remain may then be pushed in by the workman, and by the time the process is completed they will all be melted, and ultimately combined with the rest of the charge, so that all scrap iron, whether cast or malleable, may thus be used up without any loss or expense. As an example of the power that iron has of generating heat in this process I may mention a circumstance that occurred to me during my experiments: I was trying how small a set of tuyères could be used; but the size chosen proved to be too small, and after blowing into the metal for one hour and three-quarters I could not get up heat enough with them to bring on the boil. The experiment was therefore discontinued, during which time two-thirds of the metal solidified and the rest was run off. A larger set of tuyère pipes were then put in, and a fresh charge of fluid iron run into the vessel, which had the effect of entirely remelting the former charge, and when the whole was tapped out it exhibited as usual that intense and dazzling brightness peculiar to the electric light. To persons conversant with the manufacture of iron it will be at once apparent that the ingots of malleable metal which I have described will have no hard or steely parts, such as is found in puddled iron, requiring a great amount of rolling to blend them with the general mass, nor will such ingots require an excess of rolling to expel cinder from the interior of the mass, since none can exist in the ingot, which is pure and perfectly homogeneous throughout, and hence requires only as much rolling as is necessary for the development of fibre; it therefore follows that, instead of forming a merchant bar or rail by the union of a number of separate pieces welded together, it will be far more simple and less expensive to make

several bars or rails from a single ingot; doubtless this would have been done long ago had not the whole process been limited by the size of the ball which the puddler could make. The facility which the new process affords of making large masses, will enable the manufacturer to produce bars that on the old mode of working it was impossible to obtain; while, at the same time, it admits of the use of some powerful machinery whereby a great deal of labour will be saved, and the process be greatly expedited. I merely mention this fact in passing, as it is not my intention at the present moment to enter upon any details of the improvements I have made in this department of the manufacture, because the patents which I have obtained for them are not yet specified. Before, however, dismissing this branch of the subject, I wish to call the attention of the meeting to some of the peculiarities which distinguish cast steel from all other forms of iron—namely, the perfect homogeneous character of the metal, the entire absence of sand-cracks or flaws, and its greater cohesive force and elasticity as compared with the blister-steel from which it is made, qualities which it derives solely from its fusion and formation into ingots, all of which properties malleable iron acquires in like manner by its fusion and formation into ingots in the new process. Nor must it be forgotten, that no amount of rolling will give to blister-steel (although formed of rolled bars) the same homogeneous character that cast-steel acquires by a mere extension of the ingot to ten or twelve times its original length. One of the most important facts connected with the new system of manufacturing malleable iron is, that all the iron so produced will be of that quality known as charcoal iron; not that any charcoal is used in its manufacture, but because the whole of the processes following the smelting of it are conducted entirely without contact with, or the use of any mineral fuel; the iron resulting therefrom will, in consequence, be perfectly free from those injurious properties which that description of fuel never fails to impart to iron that is brought under its influence. At the same time, this system of manufacturing malleable iron offers extraordinary facility for making large shafts, cranks, and other heavy masses; it will be obvious that any weight of metal that can be founded in ordinary cast-iron by the means at present at our disposal, may also be founded in molten malleable iron, and be wrought into the forms and shapes required, provided that we increase the size and power of our machinery to the extent necessary to deal with such large masses of metal. A few minutes' reflection will show the great anomaly presented by the scale on which the consecutive processes of iron-making are at present carried on. The little furnaces originally used for smelting ore have, from time to time, increased in size, until they have assumed colossal proportions, and are made to operate on 200 or 300 tons of materials at a time, giving out ten tons of fluid metal at a single run. The manufacturer has thus gone on increasing the size of his smelting furnaces, and adapting to their use the blast apparatus of the requisite proportions, and has, by this means, lessened the cost of production in every way; his large furnaces require a great deal less labour to produce a given weight of iron than would have been required to produce it with a dozen furnaces; and in like manner he diminishes his cost of fuel blast and repairs, while he insures a uniformity in the result that never could have been arrived at by the use of a multiplicity of small furnaces. While the manufacturer has shown himself fully alive to these advantages, he has still been under the necessity of leaving the succeeding operations to be carried out on a scale wholly at variance with the principles he has found so advantageous in the smelting department. It is true that hitherto no better method was known than the puddling process, in which from 400 to 500 weight of iron is all that can be operated upon at a time, and even this small quantity is divided into homeopathic doses of some 70lb. or 80lb., each of which is moulded and fashioned by human labour, carefully watched and tended in the fur-

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nace, and removed therefrom one at a time, to be carefully manipulated and squeezed into form. When we consider the vast extent of the manufacture, and the gigantic scale on which the early stages of the progress are conducted, it is astonishing that no effort should have been made to raise the after processes somewhat nearer to a level commensurate with the preceding ones, and thus rescue the trade from the trammels which have so long surrounded it. Before concluding these remarks, I beg to call your attention to an important fact connected with the new process, which affords peculiar facilities for the manufacture of cast-steel. At that stage of the process immediately following the boil, the whole of the crude iron has passed into the condition of cast-steel of ordinary quality; by the continuation of the process, the steel so produced gradually loses its small remaining portion of carbon, and passes successively from hard to soft steel, and from soft steel to steely iron, and eventually to very soft iron; hence at a certain period of the process any quality of metal may be obtained; there is one in particular, which by way of distinction I call semi-steel, being in hardness about midway between ordinary cast-steel and soft malleable iron. This metal possesses the advantage of much greater tensile strength than soft iron, it is also more elastic, and does not readily take a permanent set, while it is much harder, and is not worn or indented so easily as soft iron; at the same time it is not so brittle or hard to work as ordinary cast-steel. These qualities render it eminently well adapted to purposes where lightness and strength are specially required, or where there is much wear, as in the case of railway bars, which from their softness and lamellar texture soon become destroyed. The cost of semi-steel will be a fraction less than iron, because the loss of metal that takes place by oxidation in the converting vessel is about 2½ per cent. less than it is with iron; but, as it is a little more difficult to roll, its cost per ton may fairly be considered to be the same as iron; but, as the tensile strength is some 30 or 40 per cent. greater than bar iron, it follows that for most purposes a much less weight of metal may be used, so that taken in that way the semi-steel will form a much cheaper metal than any that we are at present acquainted with. In conclusion, allow me to observe that the facts which I have had the honour of bringing before the meeting have not been elicited from mere laboratory experiments, but have been the result of working on a scale nearly twice as great as is pursued in our largest iron works, the experimental apparatus doing 7 cwt. in 30 minutes, while the ordinary puddling furnace makes only 4½ cwt. in two hours, which is made into six separate balls, while the ingots or blooms are smooth even prisms, 10 inches square by 30 inches in length, weighing about equal to ten ordinary puddle balls.

Mr. Symons read a paper on Lunar Motion, (Section A.) of which this is an abstract. No mathematicians either misunderstood the motion of the moon, which had been just correctly and lucidly explained by Professor Whewell; nor were they likely to be misled by the modern astronomical use of the term rotation as applied to it; or to fancy that any point in the moon's circumference turned more than 360 degrees in making her orbital revolution. But it was far otherwise with the bulk of the people: who, being told in all astronomical books that the moon rotated once on her own axis, in addition to her revolution once in her orbit, could derive no other impression than that she spun round like a peg-top; which, together with her turning round in her orbit, would cause her to make two entire revolutions, turning different faces successively to the earth; whereas, in order to keep the same face towards it, it was necessary that she should so turn as if she were rigidly attached to the centre of her orbit. He wished so to define it. He was glad that Professor Whewell had distinctly stated that her movement might be thus correctly described; though he differed from him in preferring the mathematical mode of describing it, as one of "rotation." Some astronomers, such as

Woodhouse, Vince, and others, had added that the fact that the moon rotated on her axis in the same time as she revolved in her orbit was "an extraordinary coincidence." This synchronic movement was, on the contrary, a physical necessity; and he was inclined to think, that by using such an expression, the old astronomers really mistook the moon's movement; and that modern ones had inadvertently copied these descriptions, knowing better; just as Newton had calculated the height of tides in lunar seas, of which modern astronomers denied the existence. Mr. Symons showed the three different modes in which the moon, or any sphere, might turn round a distant centre, by means of a simple instrument; by which he first gave the motion popularly understood by astronomical descriptions of one orbital revolution plus one axial rotation, whereby a point of the moon's circumference would point twice round space; secondly, that by which she preserves her parallelism, pointing always one way in space; and thirdly, her simple motion of revolution. The two former were both produced by wheels turning on their own axes; the second having a retrograde motion, neutralising the direct revolution of the disc on which it was carried round; the third or lunar motion was alone produced without any wheel or axis; the ball being fixed firmly to the revolving disc: the latter alone presented the same face to the centre of orbit, turning the opposite face successively once round space. It had been attempted to show the separate rotation of the moon round her axis by librations, which Mr. Symons contended could at the utmost prove rotation only to the exact extent of the minute zone disclosed by the libration, which in some degree, he submitted, might be accounted for by the change in the angle of parallax caused by her varying distances from the earth in her elliptical orbit. He ridiculed the attempt to show the previous motion of a body ceasing to revolve in space by sticking a spindle through a ball fixed to a revolving rod, clearly changing the resultant of the forces by the mechanical axis, and giving scope to the tangential momentum without any counteracting centripetal force. Mr. Symons then reverted to the misimpression and confusion arising from the mathematical application of the term rotation to this lunar kind of revolution. He laid especial stress on the tendency it would have to increase the ambiguity and want of precision in the terminology of practical mechanics. A learned judge, in a recent action on a patent, had complained that there were not more and exacter definitions of different kinds of motion: and were the mathematical definition of rotation to be generally introduced, it would greatly increase the ambiguity of patents, and litigation therefrom. It was, he affirmed, a modern change in the ordinary definition; which was formerly confined to revolving bodies, in which any points formed concentric rings round a centre within them. No point in the moon did this: all points in her (her own centre or axis included) forming concentric rings round the distant centre of her orbit. This was a distinct species of revolution, whether considered geometrically, dynamically, or mathematically; and it required a distinct name. He cited these passages from Barlow's Mathematical Dictionary to establish this as the old definition of rotation:—"Rotation; the motion of the different parts of a solid body about an axis, called the axis of rotation, being thus distinguished from the progressive motion of a body about some distant point or centre: thus the diurnal motion of the earth is a motion of rotation, but its annual motion one of revolution." "When a solid body turns round an axis, retaining its shape and dimensions unaltered, every particle is actually describing a circle round this axis, which axis passes through the centre of the circle, and is perpendicular to its plane." De Poinso's definition, now adopted by astronomers, made any motion one of rotation, in which a section of the revolving body does not preserve its parallelism during its revolution, whether round its own axis or round a distant one. Professor Whewell was of opinion that this was more convenient, as otherwise the moon's relation to the earth

might be deemed "casual and arbitrary," which Mr. Symons denied: he also controverted the relevancy to this argument of any reference, such as the Professor had introduced to the moon's undulating orbit round the sun: her rotation or non-rotation had no reference to space, and could be properly determined by her own internal motion, and that of her different parts, in relation to each other and to the centre of her orbit, nor could any ambiguity arise in so doing, or in restricting the use of the term rotation to its original meaning; which would simplify the great truths of astronomy, distinguishing different motions, and render them intelligible to the whole people, especially in books for popular instruction.

Mr. A. G. Findlay, F.R.G.S., read a paper (Section E) 'On a range of Volcanic Islets to the south-east of Japan.' He said,—The recent importance of our commercial relations with Japan, consequent upon the opening of the ports of Nagasaki and Hakodadi to our merchants, and the increasing commerce now developing itself between Eastern Asia and North-west America, has rendered the great ocean-highway between Nippon and the Bonin Islands of great interest. The dangers of this region to the seaman is much increased by the rapid Japanese current first shown by the author, in 1850, to run from east to west across the North Pacific Ocean, in an analogous course to the Atlantic Gulf Stream. This mighty stream running to the east-north-east through the space under consideration, has given rise to the very complicated nature of the so-believed new discoveries,—above thirty of these announcements being by investigation reduced to five or six rocky islets of very singular character. The islands nearest to Japan—the Broken Ids, Fatsi-ryo, the Japanese penal colony, and South Island—were shown to be in some cases defectively represented. The Redfield Rocks are those discovered by Broughton and corrected by Captain Donnell in 1850, and therefore not a discovery by the United States' Japan Expedition in 1854. The islands south of this are, perhaps, Tibbit Island of 1844, then an island or reef of pointed rocks, discovered by Coffin in 1825, afterwards announced as new by Captain Jurien-Lagrevière in May 1850, again announced as new by Captain Rogers in 1851, again in 1852 by Captain Drescher of the *Walter*, and again in 1856 by Captain Grove,—each person believing that he had discovered a new island. Others similar were also cited. The next group, perhaps about eight miles to the south of the last, or lat. 31° 53' north, long. 139° 59' east, was discovered by the Dutch corvette, the *Koerier*, Aug. 24, 1849, and is of a very dangerous character. Jeannette Island, twenty-three miles farther south, is doubtful. Smith Island, in lat. 31° 12', long. 139° 55', discovered by Captain Smith of the *Heber*, March 1846, is a most singular needle-rock, springing from unfathomable depths to 300 feet high, and not more than 250 feet diameter at the base. It has been seen by others. Ponafidin Island, of the Russians, lies next to the south. St. Peter's, or Black Rock, first seen in 1821, and again in 1853, is a wonderful column of basalt, or volcanic glass, 200 feet high, parallel and quite perpendicular sides, not more than 100 feet in diameter, and like a bottle in appearance. It is in lat. 29° 42', long. 140° 15'. The volcanic nature of these remarkable rocks, lying near the meridian of 140° east, indicates a continuation of those immense volcanic ranges which pass along the Kurile Islands, throughout Nippon, the great Japanese island, and thence towards the well-known range of spiracles in the Ladrones Islands. At the northern end of this range is the well-known Mount Fusi, 10,000 or 12,000 feet in height, now quiescent. To the south of this volcano is Simoda, a port between the two capitals of Japan, Jedo and Miako, which was thrown open to the commerce of the United States in 1854. The dreadful earthquake of 1854 at this place was alluded to; it totally changed the character of the harbour of Simoda, destroyed the fine city of Osaka, and injured Jedo. The wave which was caused by this upheaval of the land traversed the entire breadth of the North

Pacific in twelve hours and some few minutes, a distance of between 4000 and 5000 miles, demonstrating the depth of that ocean to be between two and three miles. The diagram illustrating the paper showed the singular confusion before mentioned in the hydrography of these small but important positions. The Bonin Islands lie to the southward. They have recently been made the subject of some uncourteous dispute by the Americans, as to the right of discovery and ownership. There can be no doubt of their Japanese discovery, and that they are the Arzobispo Islands of the early Spaniards. Next follows Captain Coffin, in 1844-45, who was believed to be an Englishman, but which is controverted by Commodore Perry, U.S.N. The particulars of the discovery were related. Next Captain (now Admiral) Beechey saw them in 1827, and took possession of them before the discovery of Coffin was published. They were colonized under the direction of Her Britannic Majesty's consul at Oahu, in 1830, the survivors of those settlers still living there. These islands have been lately explored by the United States Japan Expedition, and their volcanic origin established. It was hoped that some authority to repel aggression should be established there, as the islands have now become valuable as a coaling and refitting station for steam vessels. The volcano isles which follow are tolerably well known, and from these the volcanic submarine ridges diverge to the south, south-south-east, and south-west, several isolated shoals and volcanic rocks having been discovered in these directions. The paper concluded with a hope that our naval officers would endeavour to clear up the embarrassing confusion which had arisen from the imperfect accounts given of this now important region.

Mr. F. D. Hartland, F.S.A., Hon. Sec., read a paper (Section E) 'On Vesuvius and its Eruptions.' The author, after an interesting description of the geography and early eruptions of Vesuvius, which he illustrated by a very beautiful series of drawings and specimens of lava, proceeded to give the following account of the last eruption:—The 54th and last eruption of Vesuvius took place on the 1st May, 1855. The warning of its approach was given early in January by the opening of a new crater at the summit of the cone between the old one and the city of Naples, and directly across the route of ascent; this crater differed from the others, inasmuch as it was neither sulphurous in its character, nor was it of the usual chimney form. It was from 60 to 80 yards wide, and a slight smoke issued from its blackened sides. After its appearance the report of an immediate eruption was spread, and kept up without intermission for many months, but on Monday, the 30th April, the symptoms were so apparent that the guides declared to a party then making the ascent the number of hours it would be before it occurred. On Tuesday, 1st May, Vesuvius was invisible at Naples, and it was not till the afternoon that the fact became known that the eruption had commenced. A rush was made for Santa Lucia, the side of Naples from which the mountain can best be seen, and here the truth became apparent, as the mountain was blazing from several parts. Upon accomplishing the ascent, and after passing the Hermitage, the intense heat betrayed the approach of the burning element; and after leaving various cascades of fire, down which half melting blocks of lava were dashing at a pace to overcome all resistance, the current of the eruption was reached, and resembled a liquid fiery river rushing from the side of the cone, and apparently fed from an orifice about half way up it, which, amidst flames of fire, was throwing out stones to an immense height, accompanied by volumes of dense smoke, whilst all below was clear, and the lava at times even assumed a bright phosphoric blue. This was the most magnificent part of the scene, as the ascent of the cone did not repay the risk and trouble. During this scene daylight dawned, and so earnest had been the attention given to it by the thousands assembled on the mountains, that although a perfectly visible eclipse of the moon occurred during the time, it passed,

with few exceptions, unobserved. The eruption continued till near the end of the month, and, before its close, eleven cones were in active operation, the discharge from which was so great that at one time a total falling-in of the mountain was dreaded. This discharge, almost unaccompanied by the ejection of stones, was the peculiarity of this eruption.

Mr. Vivian, of Torquay, read a paper (Section C) 'On the earliest Traces of Roman Remains found in Kent's Cavern, especially Flint Knives and Arrow-Heads, beneath the Stalagmitic Floor.' The peculiar interest in this subject consisted in its being the link between geology and antiquities, and the certainty afforded, by the condition in which the remains were found, of their relative age, the successive deposits being sealed up *in situ* by the droppings of carbonate of lime, which assumes the form of stalagmite. The sources from which the statements in the paper were obtained were principally the original manuscript memoir of the late Rev. J. M'Every, F.G.S., which was deplored by Professor Owen, in his 'Fossil Mammalia,' and by other writers, as lost to science, and which has been recovered by Mr. Vivian, and was produced before the Section; also, the report of the sub-committee of the Torquay Natural History Society, and his own researches. The conclusions to which Mr. Vivian has arrived are mainly in accordance with those of Mr. M'Every. The cavern called 'Kent's Cave' is situated beneath a hill about a mile from Torquay, extending to a circuit of about 700 yards. It was first occupied by the bear (*Ursus spelæus*) and extinct hyena, the remains of which, with the bones of elephants, rhinoceros, deer, &c., upon which they preyed, were shown upon the rocky floor. By some violent and transitory convulsion a vast amount of the soil of the surrounding country was injected into the cavern, carrying with it the bones, and burying them in its inmost recesses. The cave appears to have been subsequently occupied by human inhabitants, whose rude flint instruments were found upon the mud beneath the stalagmite. A period then succeeded during which the cavern was not inhabited until about half of the floor was deposited, when a streak containing burnt wood and the bones of the wild boar and badger were deposited, and again the cave was unoccupied either by men or animals, the remaining portion of the stalagmite being, both above and below, pure and unstained by soil or any foreign matter. Above the floor traces were found of early Celtic, British, and Roman remains, together with those of more modern date. Amongst the inscriptions was one of interest, as connected with the landing of William III. on the opposite side of the bay—"W. Hodges, of Ireland, 1608." In the discussion which followed, and in which Sir H. Rawlinson, the secretary of the Ethnological Society, and others took part, the position of the flints beneath the stalagmite seemed to be admitted, although contrary to the generally conceived opinions of ancient geologists, thus carrying back the first occupation of Devon to a very high antiquity, but not such as to be at variance with scriptural chronology, the deposition of stalagmite being shown to have been much more rapid at those periods when the cavern was not inhabited, by the greater discharge of carbonic acid gas. Without attempting to affix with any certainty more than a relative date to these several periods, or forcing a scriptural interpretation upon natural phenomena which, as Bacon remarked, "too often produces merely a false religion and a fantastic philosophy," Mr. Vivian suggested that there was reason for believing that the introduction of the mud was occasioned, not by the comparatively tranquil Mosiac deluge that spared the olive, and allowed the oak to float without miraculous interposition, but by the greater convulsion alluded to in the first chapter of Genesis, which destroyed the pre-existing races of animals, most of those in this cavern being of extinct species, and prepared the earth for man and his contemporaries.

## VARIETIES.

**Guildhall Improvements.**—During the progress of the workmen at the Guildhall, in removing a portion of the wall at the south-western angle, a Gothic window was suddenly revealed. This window is supposed to have been enclosed in the wall since the great fire of London in 1666, and upon examining it minutely we find that portions of it have evidently been subjected to the action of fire. Its mullions and tracery are composed of magnesian limestone, and in parts are calcined, while other portions are perfectly hard. This window is composed of two lights, glazed in the usual manner of the period, with leaden work enclosing lozenge-shaped pieces of glass, and tracery above the springing, which branches off into two arches, having a spandrel between, filled up with carp work. The mullion which divides the lights is four feet in height to the springing of the arch, and its width is five feet from jamb to jamb, which, with the soffit, are splayed, and measure two feet six inches across. The wall in which the window is inserted is four feet in thickness, and is composed of Kentish ragstone and chalk grouted together with mortar of a very inferior description.—*Building News.*

### WHAT IS THAT WE TAKE FROM EARTH?

WHAT is that we take from earth  
When the spirit leaves its clay?  
What is there of mortal birth  
Worthy to be borne away?  
Is it state, or power, or fame,  
Gold or rank, we need above?  
Oh! there's nought worth heaven's claim  
Save that gift of heaven—love!  
Love, which fills the world with light,  
When the sun hath set afar;  
Love which joins us in our flight  
To that land where angels are!  
From all nature doth it draw  
Beauty to adorn its shrine;  
By some spiritual law  
Making earthly things divine.  
It the inner soul inspires,  
It the purer life reveals;  
And eternity requires  
To express the faith it feels!  
Love, 'tis love, fills earth with light,  
When the sun hath set afar;  
Love, which joins us in our flight  
To that world where angels are!  
Yes, 'mid all that God hath made  
There is one surpassing spell;  
In its strength are saints arrayed,  
In its glory angels dwell.  
It is this which still outspeeds  
Sight and space, and time and breath,  
It is this the spirit needs  
When immortal over death!  
Sweetness which outblooms the May,  
Brightness which outshines the star;  
This, 'tis this, we bear away  
To that land where angels are!

CHARLES SWAIN.

**The Great Bell for Westminster Clock.**—This bell has now been raised from the pit, and was sounded for the first time with a clapper of 7 cwt. on Friday last. The casting is said to be clean, and the tone fine. The diameter is 9 feet 5½ inches; the height outside, 7 feet 10½ inches; inside, 6 feet 8 inches; thickness of sound bow, 9 inches; of the waist, 3 inches. It has not yet been weighed, but, as it has shrunk less than was expected in casting, it is believed that the weight will be rather over 15 tons. The note is E natural. The bell has the following inscription running round it, just above the sound bow:—"Cast in the 20th year of the reign of Her Majesty Queen Victoria, and in the year of our Lord 1856, from the design of Edmund Beckett Denison, Q.C.; Sir Benjamin Hall, baronet, M.P., Chief Commissioner of Works." On the waist or middle of the bell are the Royal arms, and the names of the founders and patentees of the mode of casting which has been adopted for it,—



"John Warner and Sons, Crescent Foundry, Cripple Gate, London." The certificate of Professor Wheatstone and the Rev. W. Taylor, F.R.S., or one of them, is required in addition to that of Mr. Denison. The quarter bells will now be proceeded with: the largest of them will be six feet in diameter, and will weigh about four tons, and is also to be cast at Norton, near Stockton-on-Tees.—*Builder*.

## TO CORRESPONDENTS.

A Country Clergyman—'Life of Napoleon III., Emperor of the French,' by the Rev. H. Christmas, M.A., is. J. F. Shaw. There is also a Memoir in the new Biographical Cyclopaedia, edited by Charles Knight.  
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The bowels must be opened, cleansed, soothed, and strengthened, the urine must be made to flow healthfully and naturally, and to throw off the impurities of the blood; the liver and stomach must be regulated; and above all the

## PORES

must be opened, and the skin made healthy. These things done, and Nature will go to her work, and ruddy health will sit smiling upon the cheek, and

## LIFE WILL BE AGAIN A LUXURY.

We will suppose the case of a person afflicted with a bilious complaint. His head aches, his appetite is poor, his bones and back ache, he is weak and nervous, his complexion is yellow, the skin dry, and his tongue furred. He goes to a doctor for relief, and is given a dose of medicine to purge him freely, and he gets some temporary relief.

## BUT HE IS NOT CURED!

In a few days the same symptoms return, and the same old purge is administered; and so on, until the poor man becomes a martyr to heavy, drastic purgatives. Now, what would be the

in such a case? What practice that Nature herself points out? Why to set in healthy operation ALL THE MEANS THAT NATURE POSSESSES TO THROW OUT OF THE SYSTEM THE CAUSES OF DISEASE. The bowels must of course be evacuated, but the work is not begun AT THIS STAGE OF THE DISEASE. The kidneys must be prompted to do their work, for they have a most important work to do; the stomach must be cleansed; and, above all, the pores must be relieved and enabled to throw off the secretions which ought to pass off through them. We repeat that by

THE BOWELS—THE URINE—THE PORES, the disease must be expelled from the system, and not by the bowels alone, as is the usual practice.

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OR,

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By JOHN M. KEMBLE, M.A.

HON. MEMBER OF THE ROYAL ACADEMIES OF BERLIN, GÖTTINGEN, AND MUNICH; FELLOW OF THE ROYAL SOCIETIES OF HISTORY IN COPENHAGEN, ICELAND, AND STOCKHOLM; MEMBER OF THE HISTORICAL SOCIETIES OF LOWER SAXONY, MECKLENBURG-SCHWERIN, &c. &c.

THE aim proposed by this work is, to extend to Archæology the application of a principle which has produced most striking results in Natural Science and Philology; in short, to supply the means of comparison between the principal types of objects of Archæological interest, from different ages and different parts of the world. The plates, therefore, give accurate representations of the most remarkable Antiquities contained in the principal Museums of Northern Europe, more particularly such as have not hitherto been depicted in any other work. These have been selected from a collection of several thousand Drawings, made by the Author himself, in the course of his travels on the Continent and in various parts of England.

It is intended that every Plate shall be accompanied by a detailed account of the objects represented upon it, together with the circumstances and the place of their discovery, or of their actual deposit. Such of them as are of peculiar rarity, or, on other grounds, of unusual interest, will be given in the natural size and colours.

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